

Media Use and Integration

A Study on Students with Migration Backgrounds in Switzerland

Thesis

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Abbreviations

ARD	Arbeitsgemeinschaft der öffentlich-rechtlichen Rundfunkanstalten der Bundesrepublik Deutschland Consortium of public broadcasters in Germany
BAKOM	Bundesamt für Kommunikation The Swiss Federal Office of Communications
BFM	Bundesamt für Migration The Swiss Federal Office of Migration
BFS	Bundesamt für Statistics The Swiss Federal Office of Statistics
CH	Confederatio Helvetica Switzerland
EFTA	European Free Trade Association
EU	The European Union
FOM	The Swiss Federal Office for Migration
ICT	Information and Computer Technology
IOM	International Organization for Migration
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
SLFS	Swiss Labor Force Surveys
ZDF	Zweites Deutsches Fernsehen Second German Television
WDR	Westdeutscher Rundfunk West German Broadcasting Cologne

Introduction

Migration is not an event, but rather a process that evolves through the whole human history. Willingly or unwillingly, people have been moving for centuries from the East to the West, from the South to the North, or conversely, for centuries. In a broad sense, everyone is a migrant, or at least his or her ancestors are.

Migration as a complex process of leaving a home country and creating a new life in a new society concerns the everyday interaction with the host society, culture, and tradition. This interaction, named as *integration* in this dissertation, is the core of this study. Integration includes many kinds of situations, not only the positive integration into the new society, but also the negative integration, such as migrant ghettos, or marginalized situation from both societies.

Studies on the psychology of migrants in a host society suggest that there are four strategies of immigration by migrants into the new society. In the first case, they may choose to separate from the host society and only keep contacts within their home society. Second, they are marginalized from neither host society nor home society. Third, they hold hybrid identities and live between two cultures. Last, they are assimilated in the host society and detached from home society (Berry, 2001). Based on this psychological theoretical background, scholars in communication science and media research started to explore whether media use behaviors play a role in the choice of these immigration strategies. Various scholars have contributed empirical studies which were based on specific ethnic groups and in particular regions, for example, Turkish groups in Germany (Hafez, 2002; Heft, Trebbe, & Weiss, 2010; Trebbe, Heft, & Weiss, 2010; Trebbe, 2007), Italian communities in Switzerland (Piga, 2008; Signer, Puppis, & Piga, 2011), and Turkish and Arabic migrants in Switzerland (Bonfadelli, Bucher, & Piga, 2007; Bonfadelli & Signer, 2008; Bonfadelli, 2010).

These studies have provided profound empirical evidences and theoretical contributions for immigration strategies of migrants. However, there are some common gaps in this field. First, all of these studies have emphasized the feature of one ethnic community and neglected the comparisons between various ethnic immigrants in the host society. Second, most studies developed theoretical models based on the study of mass media use. However, nowadays

social media brought tremendous changes in the lives of many people. I argue to analyze social media as an individual variable when discussing the media use of migrants. Third, although the amount of global student migrants were more than doubled between the year 2000 and 2011 (OECD, 2013), it is an under-studied group in migration studies. This study looks at students with migration backgrounds as the research target and tries to describe and explain the media use behavior and integration situation of this particular group.

As a researcher in communication science, I am interested in extending my study in these two directions. The core research question of this dissertation is: What role does media use play, especially social media, in the process of integration of migrants into a host society? In this setting, this study also tries to describe the different social and mass media usage behaviors of the same group. By applying a quantitative standardized online survey, I am going to not only provide more empirical insights of migration issues in Switzerland but also build new theoretical frameworks. In order to compare different ethnic groups, I will choose students with migration backgrounds at universities in German-speaking areas of Switzerland. The demographic features of this group are quite similar in several aspects, such as education background, income, and age. Therefore, by controlling the demographic information, cross-ethnic comparison is possible. Moreover, the gender of this group of people is almost equally distributed. Students are frequent users of social media. Therefore, social media use of this group can be featured and the influence of it can be accordingly measured.

This dissertation is structured in four chapters. In Chapter One, I will give an overview of the migration issues in Switzerland in a global context. The key concepts, such as integration, and media use, will be defined and discussed. At last, a thorough literature review on the topic of media use and integration will be presented in the range of Switzerland, Europe, and the world. The second chapter will cover the methodology and the operationalization of this study, which includes research questions, hypotheses, and research design. In Chapter Three, I will present the core findings and results of the quantitative survey, and also conclusions. Firstly, the sample and the analysis model will be introduced. Secondly, descriptive findings of the survey will be illustrated. Thirdly, research questions and hypotheses will be tested under the analysis model. In the last chapter, I will discuss the contributions and shortcomings of this study and provide suggestions for future studies.

Chapter One: Theoretical Background and Literature Review

"The migrant is not on the margin of modern experience – he is absolutely central to it" (Berg, 2010).

1. Migration

1.1 Migration as a Trend

Migration is defined as “the movement of a person or a group of persons, either across an international border, or within a State (Perruchoud & Redpath-Cross, 2011, p. 63)” in the *Glossary for Migration* published by International Organization for Migration (IOM). In general, migrants can be defined as people who change their places of residence.

People move for various reasons. In the following, I will give an overview of world migration in recent years to illustrate the trends, figures, and patterns of migration nowadays. In 2013, the number of international migrants worldwide reached 232 million people, up from 175 million in 2000 and 154 million in 1990, which was the highest number in history. Between 1990 and 2000, there was an average increase rate of 1.2 percent international migrants per year. During the period from 2000 to 2010, the annual growth rate of international migrants accelerated, reaching 2.3 percent. Since then, however, it slowed down, falling to around 1.6 percent per year during the period from 2010 to 2013 (United Nations, 2013).

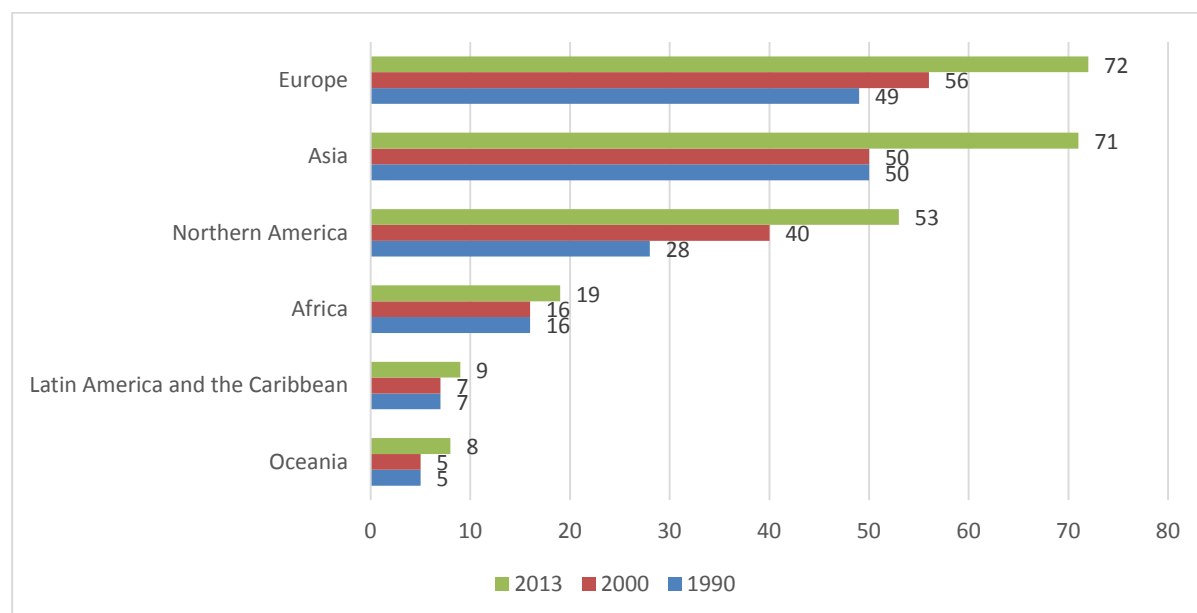
In 2013, over 51% of all international migrants in the world were living in ten countries. A large portion of them (20%) was living in the U.S. (46 million). Besides, the U.S., the other top-10 countries with the most international migrants are: Russia (11 million), Germany (10 million), Saudi Arabia (9 million), the U.A.E. (8 million), U.K. (8 million), France (7 million), Canada (7 million), Australia (6 million), and Spain (6 million).

The world average of migrants in the total population was 3.2% in 2013, however, the difference among regions and countries was tremendously large. United Arab Emirates held the highest migrant portion of 83.7%, followed by Qatar (73.8%), and Kuwait (60.2%). In contrast, China, Vietnam, Indonesia, and Cuba had the lowest migrant percentage in their total population, which were 0.1% in each country. According to the database of *International Migration 2013*, the mean of the international migrant percentage was 5.3% among 260 regions and countries. In this report, Switzerland ranked 37 among 260 countries and regions with an international migrant percentage of 28.9%, which equals to 2.3 million migrants.

Europe and Asia together hosted nearly two-thirds of all international migrants worldwide. In 2013, 72 million international migrants were residing in Europe, compared to 71 million in Asia. North America hosted the third largest number of international migrants in 2013 (53

million), followed by Africa (19 million), Latin America and the Caribbean (9 million), and Oceania (8 million).

Figure 1: International Migrants by Major Areas, 1990, 2000 and 2013 (millions)



Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2013). International Migration 2013 Wall chart (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.13.XIII.8).

In 2011, the total population in the EU-27 reached 502 million people. Among this number, 6.6% of people were of a foreign population, which equaled to 33 million people (Eurostats, 2011). However, the foreign population percentage was greatly different from country to country. The following table shows the countries with their total population and the percentage in citizens and foreign population, listed in the rank of decreasing foreign-population percentage. Switzerland ranked as the third country (22.4%) in Europe with the most foreign population in the year of 2011, following Luxembourg (43.1%) and Liechtenstein (33.2%).

Table 1: Total and foreign population in EU and Switzerland, 2011

	Total Population (In thousands)	Citizens	Non-citizens		
			Total	EU Nations	Third-country Nations
		(in %)	(in %)	(in %)	(in %)
Luxembourg	512	56.8	43.1	37.2	5.9
Liechtenstein	36	66.8	33.2	16.4	16.8

Switzerland	7,870	77.6	22.4	13.9	8.5
Cyprus	840	79.7	20.0	12.5	7.4
Latvia	2,230	83.0	17.0	0.4	16.6
Estonia	1,321	84.2	15.7	1.0	14.8
Spain	46,153	87.7	12.3	5.0	7.2
Austria	8,396	89.1	10.8	4.2	6.6
Belgium	11,001	89.4	10.6	6.8	3.8
Germany	81,752	91.2	8.8	3.2	5.6
Greece	11,310	91.5	8.5	1.4	7.1
Ireland	4,481	90.8	8.1	6.5	1.5
Italy	60,626	92.5	7.5	2.2	5.3
Norway	4,918	92.5	7.5	4.4	3.1
Ver. Kingdom	62,499	92.8	7.2	3.3	3.9
Iceland	318	93.4	6.6	5.2	1.4
EU-27	502,500	93.3	6.6	2.5	4.1
Sweden	9,416	93.3	6.6	2.9	3.7
Denmark	5,561	93.8	6.2	2.3	4.0
France	65,048	94.1	5.9	2.1	3.8
Malta	418	95.1	4.9	2.5	2.4
Portugal	10,637	95.8	4.2	1.0	3.2
Netherlands	16,656	95.4	4.0	2.0	2.0
Slovenia	2,050	96.0	4.0	0.3	3.8
Lish. Republic	10,533	96.0	4.0	1.3	2.7
Finland	5,375	96.9	3.1	1.1	2.0
Hungary	9,986	97.9	2.1	1.3	0.8
Slovakia	5,435	98.7	1.3	0.8	0.5
Lithuania	3,245	99.0	1.0	0.1	1.0
Bulgaria	7,369	99.5	0.5	0.1	0.4
Poland	38,200	99.9	0.1	0.0	0.1
Romania	21,414	:	:	:	:

Source: Eurostats, 2011, Migration and Migrant Population Statistics

Switzerland is among the countries with the highest migrant population in Europe. The migration issue is as well a frequent topic in mass media, political campaigns, and scholarly discussions, intertwined with national identity, economic benefits, and cultural conflicts. The most powerful right-wing party Swiss Peoples Party (SVP: *Schweizerische Volkspartei*) started several voting campaigns against immigration in Switzerland. A study called “Swiss Concern Barometer”, which is conducted annually, shows the most concerned problems among Swiss nationals about their country. In the study of 2013, 1,009 Swiss were randomly interviewed across the country and when they were asked, “what do you personally think are the five most important problems in Switzerland”, 37% of them chose “foreigners”. “Foreigners” ranked secondly as the most important problems in Switzerland, right after “Unemployment (44%)” and followed by “Retirement” (29%), “Asylum request” (28%), “Personal security” (24%), “Health care” (21%), “Social security” (21%), “Energy problems” (19%), “Salary” (19%), and “New poverty” (18%). Since 2011, “Foreigner” is the second highest problem that the Swiss worried about most in their country (gfs.bern, 2013).

It is interesting to take Switzerland as an example of European countries, because of its economic demand for migrants but at the same time its crisis of national identity and tradition. Another interesting conflict is its wealthy economic temptation for migrants to move into Switzerland, but their struggle and willingness to integrate into the country. Moreover, Switzerland lies in the middle of Europe but refuses to join neither the EU nor the Euro zone. Its political “island” position makes its migration issue more complicated and therefore makes it a special case. In the following sections, I will focus on migration facts in Switzerland: the history, the statistics, and the policy, and then compare them with those in other European countries.

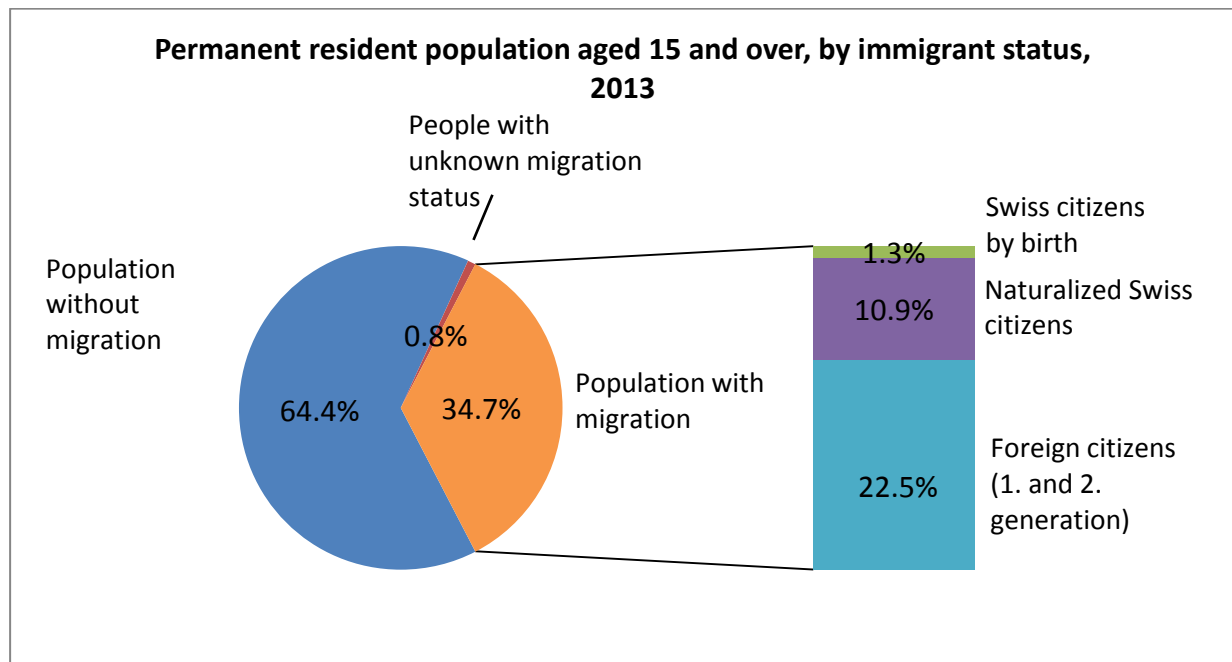
1.2 Migration Facts in Switzerland

Migration History and Statistics in Switzerland

According to the definition of The Swiss Federal Office for Migration (FOM, or BFM in German), people with migration backgrounds refer to the people; where at least one of whose parents was born abroad. This means that people with migration backgrounds are not only foreign citizens but also Swiss citizens who acquired Swiss citizenship by birth or by naturalization, while at least one parent was born abroad. According to this definition, in 2013, there were 2.4 million people with migration backgrounds, which was 34.8% of the

permanent residents aged 15 or above in Switzerland. A third of this population (836,000) were Swiss citizens. Four-fifths of people with immigration backgrounds are themselves immigrants (first generation foreigners and native-born and naturalized Swiss citizens), whereas one-fifth were born in Switzerland (second generation foreigners and native-born and naturalized Swiss citizens) (SLFS, 2014a).

Figure 2: Swiss Population with migration backgrounds 2013 (SLFS, 2014b)



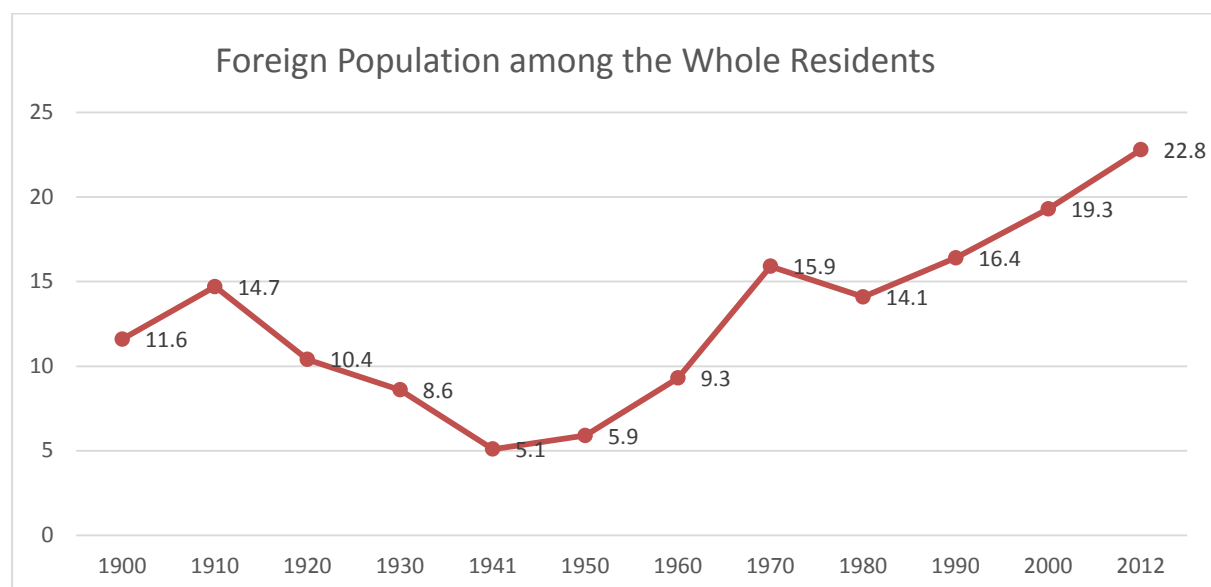
Source: Swiss Labor Force Surveys (SLFS)

In 2012, more than one-third of Swiss population was with migration backgrounds. This demographic feature was shaped in the past century. In the 18th century Switzerland was an emigrant country, but until the late 19th century it changed to an immigrant country due to industrialization. The foreign population was doubled over 100 years since 1900, from 11.6% to 22.8%. Piguet (2006) divided the immigrant history of Switzerland after the Second World War into five phases. Phase One is from 1948 to 1962, which is called the “Door Open” time. Because of positive economic developments after the Second World War, Switzerland had a large demand for foreign workers, especially in the fields of agriculture, industry and construction. The second phase is from 1963 to 1973, the “Xenophobia” period. After the “Door Open” time, certain social tensions and xenophobic moods were increased. At this time, the government started a series of political measures to limit migrant workers (German: *Plafonierungsmassnahmen*). However, the number of *Guest Workers* still increased and until 1970, the foreign population in Switzerland reached a historic high with more than one million people. Half of them were from Italy and 11% from Germany. The third period is

from 1974 to 1984, which is called the “End of the First Immigrant Tide”. Due to the Petroleum Crisis during 1973 and 1974, almost 16% of job positions were cut down and 10,000 foreign workers had to go back home. Phase Four is from 1985 to 1992, the “Second Migrant Tide”. Again, during this period, the migrant population increased and a big part of it came from ex-Yugoslavia and Portugal. The last period starts from 1993, which was named by Piguet as an “uncertain and conflict” time. Although unemployment in the 90s in Switzerland reached a record high, which also stopped the new working immigrants, the foreign population was still increasing (Piguet, 2006).

The foreign population of the total permanent residents in Switzerland from the end of December, 1900 until 2012 is illustrated in the following chart (BFM, 2012).

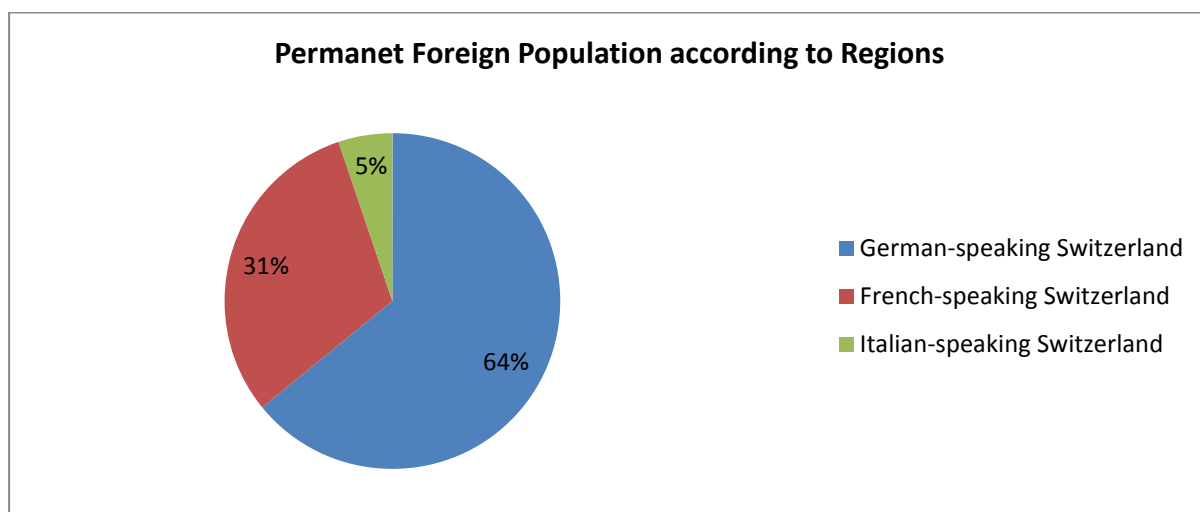
Figure 3: Foreign Population of the total Permanent Residents (in Percentage), since Dec. 1900



Source: BFM 2012

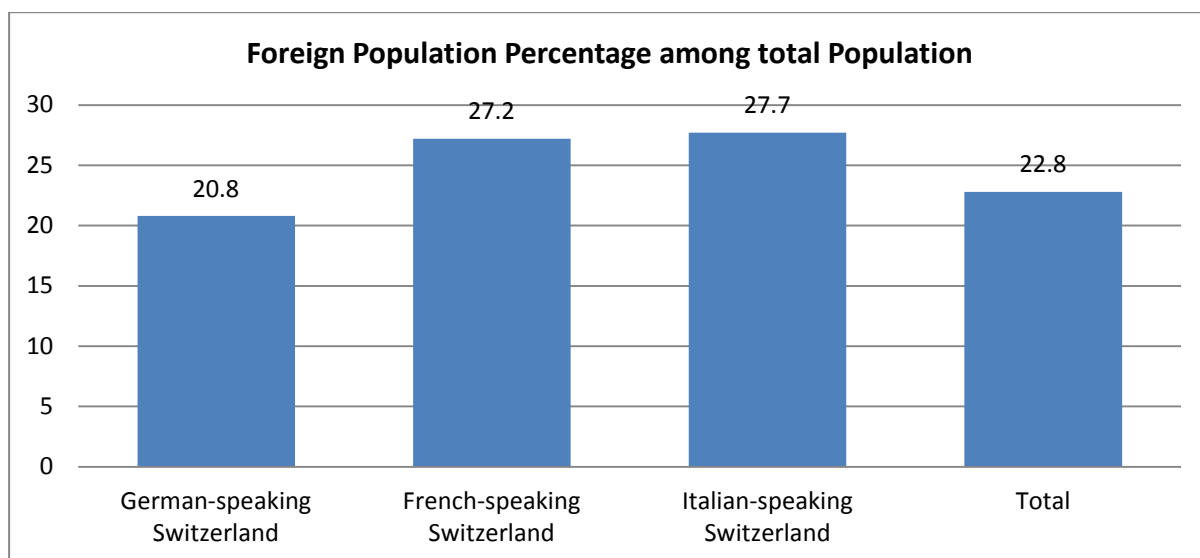
Until the end of December 2012, there were 1.8 million permanent foreign populations living in Switzerland. Around 65% of them were living in the German-speaking Switzerland, one-third living in the French-speaking Switzerland, and 5% of them living in the Italian-speaking Switzerland. Although German-speaking Switzerland shared the largest number of foreign population, Italian- and French- speaking Switzerland had the highest foreign percentage among their total populations, 27.7% and 27.2%, compared to 20.8% in German-speaking Switzerland.

Figure 4: Permanent Foreign Population according to Language Regions in Switzerland, End Dec. 2012



Source: BFM 2013

Figure 5: Foreign Population Percentage among total Population, End Dec. 2012

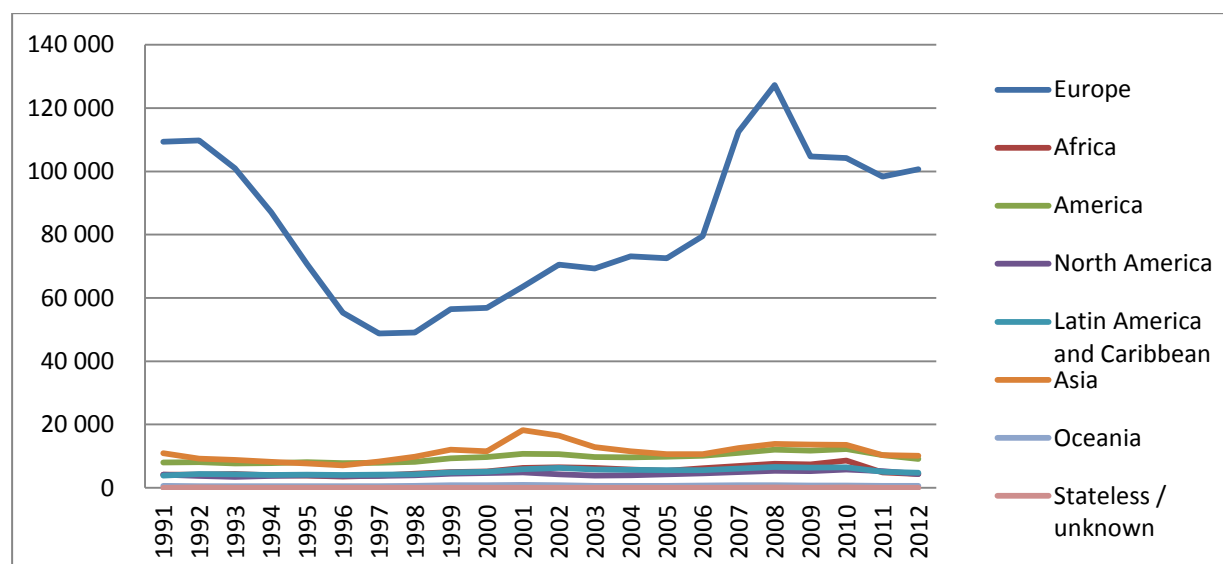


Source: BFM 2013

Most of the foreign population in Switzerland comes from Europe (see Figure 6). Switzerland lies in the middle of Europe but it does not join the European Union. After “Free Movement

of Persons Agreement¹ (German: *Personenfreizügigkeit*) signed by Switzerland and the EU in 1999 and then coming into force in 2002, it attracted a remarkably large amount of migrants from European countries over one decade. Between 2008 and 2009, migrants from Europe reached its historic peak (BFS, 2013).

Figure 6: Immigrants in Switzerland according to Continent, 1991-2012



Source: BFS, 2013

In Switzerland, most European migrants came from Italy, Germany, and Portugal. Until the end of 2012, migrants from these three countries added up to 68% of all the migrants from EU27 countries. Italian migrants made up to 15.6% of the whole foreign population, followed

¹ On June 21 1999, the European Union and Switzerland signed seven bilateral agreements including the Agreement on the Free Movement of Persons, which came into force on 1 June 2002. As a result of EU eastern enlargement on 1 May 2004, the agreement was supplemented by an additional protocol containing provisions for the gradual introduction of the free movement of persons as well in the ten new EU member states. The protocol came into force on 1 April 2006. In a referendum on 8 February 2009, the Swiss electorate approved the continuation of the Free Movement of Persons Agreement after 2009 and Protocol II on extending the Agreement to Romania and Bulgaria. The election result confirms Switzerland's commitment to the Bilateral II agreements. The protocol came into force on 1 June 2009 (BFM, 2013).

The Free Movement of Persons Agreement and its additional protocol lift restrictions on EU citizens wishing to live or work in Switzerland. The same rules apply to citizens of EFTA states. The citizens of the founding EU states, including Cyprus and Malta (EU-17), and the citizens of EFTA states have enjoyed free movement rights for several years already. The citizens of the EU-8 state were granted the same unrestricted free movement rights on 1 May 2011. The citizens of Bulgaria and Romania will remain subject to restrictions until 31 May 2016 at the latest (BFM, 2013).

by German migrants (15 %) and Portuguese migrants (12.7%). The migrant population from of these three nations was 43.5% of the total migrant population in Switzerland.

Though some agree that *The Free Movement of Persons Agreement* signed with the EU was the compromise made by Switzerland, the embryo of this can be found in Swiss migration history. This European-central migration feature can be traced back to debates over migration issues in Switzerland in the early 90s. In 1991, the Swiss parliament passed the “Three-Circle-Model”, which defined migrants into three categories according to migration backgrounds. The proposal of this model was based on two backgrounds. First, migrants for the economic development should be possible; second, there were the fear of “Foreign Immersion” (*Überfremdung*) among a big part of Swiss population. The “Three-Circle-Model” was therefore set up on the principle of the cultural similarities between European countries. The “Interior Circle” consisted of European countries and EFTA (European Free Trade Association) countries. Migrants from these countries were allowed the freedom to move to Switzerland. The “Middle Circle” was Canada, the U.S., and middle and Eastern Europe. These countries were selected according to the “within limited politics we would like to hire these people (Bundersrat 1991, p.12, quoted from Piguet, 2006, pp. 72)”. All other countries belonged to the “Exterior Circle”. Migrants from this circle were not allowed in Switzerland and only highly qualified, special talents were allowed in exceptional cases (Piguet, 2006, pp. 71 – 72). Linked with historical background, the “Free Movement of Persons Agreement” was the continuity of this “Three-Circle-Model” rather than the compromise with EU. In 2012, migrants from EU27/EFTA made up 63% of the total migrants. In total, migrants from other European countries were 85% of the total migrants in Switzerland. The table below shows clearly that the majority of migrants in Switzerland are from European countries, and most of them are from Italy, Germany, and Portugal.

Table 2: Permanent foreign residents according to nationality (at the end of the year, in thousand)

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Total	1669.7	1714	1766.3	1816	1870
EU27/EFTA-countries	1037.1	1077.6	1101.5	1145	1191.9
Italy	291.6	290.6	287.1	288	291.8
Germany	234.6	251.9	263.3	275.3	284.2
Portugal	196.8	206	212.6	223.7	237.9
France	87.4	92.5	95.6	99.9	104
Spain	65.2	65	64.1	65.8	69.4
Austria	35.7	36.7	37	37.9	38.8

Other Europe	406.8	402.2	403.4	400.8	399.8
Serbia and Montenegro	184.4	181.3
Serbia	121.9	109.3	98.7
Turkey	72.2	71.6	71.8	71.4	70.8
Africa	54.8	57.7	71.5	74.8	78.2
America	69.8	72.7	74.5	76.6	77.7
Asia	96.9	99.3	110.5	113.6	117.2
Oceania	3.8	4	4	4.1	4.1
Unknown	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.1

Source: BFS, 2013

As from the migrant population origin statistics and Swiss migration history, it can be predicted that if a certain migrant group (e.g., student migrant) will be studied, some ethnic backgrounds, such as Italian, German, and Portugal would be dominant. To compare a single ethnic background of all migrant origins might not make sense, because the migrant population with non-European ethnic backgrounds is comparatively very small.

Concerning migration reasons, the most important reason to come to Switzerland is to work or to look for a job. This migrant reason indicated a significant gender difference. There were 52.6% male migrants in Switzerland because of a job or job seeking, in comparison to only one-third of females coming for this reason. On the contrary, 48.7% of women came to Switzerland for family reasons or to get married which was 2.6 times more than men who came with the same such reasons. Besides that, there were almost three times more men than woman coming into Switzerland as an asylum seeker. From all of the migration reasons, study was the only one reason which shows the least gender difference. 5.9% of men and 4.9% of women came to Switzerland to study.

Table 3: Migration Reasons for People between 15 to 74 Years Old, 2008

	Man		Woman	
	In thousand	In percentage	In thousand	In percentage
1 To start an employment	204	33.9	123	19.4
2 Job seek	112	18.7	69	10.8
3 To study	35	5.9	31	4.9
4 To apply for Asylum	36	6.1	15	2.4
5 Family reunion	62	10.4	173	27.2
6 To marry	49	8.2	136	21.5
7 Other reasons	94	15.6	81	12.8
Do not know	(2)	(0.3)	()	()
No reasons	5	0.8	5	0.8

Source: BFS 2008

This gender equality in the migration reason for study partly indicates the demographic background for the study group of this research: student migrants. Among student migrants, gender is not the most significant distinction in this population.

The Swiss Migration Policy in Western European Context

In order to better understand the migration issue in Switzerland, it is important to compare the cultural and historical backgrounds for migrants as well as migration policies in Switzerland with other democratic countries in Europe and in the world. As Castles has suggested that,

“Research on any specific migration phenomenon must always include research on the societal context in which it takes place (Castles, 2010, p. 1578) ”

Among liberal democratic countries, three distinct modes of immigration politics can be grouped (Freeman, 1995, p. 881). Traditional immigrant countries are: Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the U.S. Migration to these countries is deeply imbedded in their histories and is fundamental to their national developments. The second group refers to those Western European states, such as Germany, France, Britain, Switzerland, the Netherlands, Sweden, and Belgium, who took great amounts of temporary laborers after the Second World War. The last group is the other European states, like Portugal, Spain, Italy, and Greece, who are mostly described as migrant sending countries.

Due to historic backgrounds, the migration issue turns its distinguished features in North America, Oceania, and Europe. In general, compared to immigrant countries, western European states are more skeptical about immigration and reluctant to receive immigrants. Immigrant countries have immigration policies that are more open, since historically, immigrants were essential for their population growth and even their survival time. Such first immigration experiences, were critical in producing a receptive cultural context for further waves of migration. In immigrant countries like Canada and Australia, the official policy states that the large society is expected to accept cultural diversity and encourage efforts to reduce discrimination against minority and migrant groups (Phinney, 2013). However, mass immigration occurred in European countries, when they were already fully developed national states. Therefore, mass migration in Europe that happened in a modern age was a method to meet the labor demand (Freeman, 1995). These historical factors influenced

different migration environments in Europe. “Migration pressures from developing countries may increase in the future, but Western Europe will be reluctant to allow large-scale labor immigration again (Messina, 1990).” In this context, it makes more sense to review the migration policy in Switzerland under a western European background rather than a global framework. Although Western Europe is doubtful about mass immigration, their migration policies mainly attempt to attract highly skilled migrants in order to advance global competition.

Some scholars tried to categorized ethnic diversity policies across the democratic states: differential exclusion (Germany, Austria, and Switzerland), assimilation (France, Britain, and the Netherlands), and multiculturalism (the U.S., Canada, Australia, and Sweden) (Castles & Miller, 2009, pp. 247–252). This approach is very broad and even rough, since some countries can fit into more than one category, or countries under one category were different from the others. Some other scholar argued that there were complex state systems in each European host country to manage native population and those have been adapted and extended to deal with immigrants (Soysal, 1994). However, migration policy is not the central topic of this dissertation. It is involved to present a background of migration issues in Switzerland and in connection with the world. In the following, I am going to illustrate an overview of the Swiss migration policy in comparison with other western European states.

Switzerland and Swiss Migration Policy

Switzerland is a federal country with 26 cantons and divided into four language regions: German-, French-, Italian-, and Romansh-speaking. Most cantons are officially monolingual, and one religion usually predominates in each (Ireland, 1994, pp. 147 – 148).

“Swiss culture functions as an accumulation of monologues. Diverse European cultures have not so much come together in Switzerland as they coexisted by turning backs to each other (Lempen 1985, p. 154, quoted from Ireland, 1994, p. 147).”

The study of Switzerland should always notice the distinct differences between language regions and prevent generalizing the single national feature of this state. Although Switzerland is a small country with a population of 8 million in 2012 and a 41,285 square kilometer area, it is a very culturally diverse country. Diversity is one of the central elements of Swiss identity. But the geographic concentration of Switzerland’s ethnic, linguistic, and

religious components – coming together as highly autonomous cantons in a weak federalist system - permits each to protect and maintain itself (Ireland, 1994, p. 165). Switzerland is itself a multi-lingual and multi-cultural country, since it is a small state combined with four language regions and each region is strongly influenced by its neighboring state, such as: Germany, France, and Italy. This cultural affinity to neighboring cultures has its uniqueness. Kriesi et al. (1996, p. 61-62) found that the Swiss French and Swiss Italian feel rather close to the Frenches and Italians respectively, whereas this is not the case for Swiss German towards German (quoted from Helbling, 2011, p. 14). It is generally applied that the multiculturalism within Switzerland should be greatly respected and protected. However, this multiculturalism as a national characteristic should be distinguished from the “multiculturalism” notion in migration studies.

Switzerland introduced a dual system of recruiting foreign labor as of the first of November, 1998. Switzerland is a non-EU country, but it signed a series of bilateral agreements with the EU. One agreement related with migration issues is *The Free Movement of Persons*. Based on this agreement, people from EU and EFTA member states, regardless of their qualifications, are granted priority admission to the Swiss labor market over people from other countries. This means that workers from all other states except the EU, which are generally named as third states, are admitted in limited numbers to the labor market in Switzerland, but only if they are well qualified. Third state nationals may only be admitted if a person cannot be recruited from the labor market of Switzerland or another EU/EFTA member state. In order to hire workers from third states, employers must prove that they have not been able to recruit a suitable employee from this priority category, despite intensive efforts (AuG, 2005, p. Art. 21). This “National – EU - Others” three circle model is not unique in Switzerland. It can also be found in other Western European countries, for instance: the Netherlands. The employer can only get the working permit for foreign employees in the case that the position was unsuccessfully filled by either Dutch or EU citizens, and has to guarantee foreigners a salary above the minimum legally approved level. But in order to attract highly skilled migrants, Netherlands has a tax-reduction system for foreign employees with professional expertise and/or specific knowledge, for a maximum period of ten years.

Accordingly, the Swiss residence permit system is dual as well. Basically, there are seven types of residence permits in Switzerland (BFM, 2010b). They are Permit B (residence permit), Permit C (settlement permit), Permit G (cross-border commuter permit), Permit L (short-term residence permit), Permit F (provisionally admitted foreigners), Permit N (permit

for asylum-seekers), and Permit S (people in need of protection). In the following, I will only discuss Permit B and C, which are mostly related with student migrants. Permit B is for foreign nationals who reside in Switzerland for a longer period of time for a certain purpose with or without gainful employment. For EU/EFTA citizens, Permit B is issued if one is in possession of an employment contract of at least twelve months and is valid for five years. If the holder has been involuntarily unemployed for more than twelve consecutive months, first-time renewal of the permit can be limited to one year. On the contrary, the validity period of Permit B for third-country nationals is limited to one year no matter how long employment contracts last. Moreover, the holder is unable to renew the permit in unemployment cases. Permit C, entitling foreign nationals the right to settle in Switzerland, is not subject to any time restrictions or conditions, which is known in some other countries as the “Green Card”. EU-17 (except Cyprus and Malta) and EFTA nationals are granted settlement permits pursuant to settlement treaties or reciprocal agreements after five years of regular and uninterrupted residence in Switzerland. In this case, third-country nationals can apply for a Permit C with ten years of residence in Switzerland. American and Canadian nationals are subject to a special regulation.

Becoming a naturalized Swiss citizen is a long and complicated process. Naturalization is not affected by “The Free Movement of Persons” agreement, and it shows therefore no differences between EU nationals and nations from third states. It requires a long duration of residence of 12 years, which is the longest in the OECD, and a three-tiered nature of citizenship acquisition, which involves federal, cantonal, and communal bodies. Naturalization in other European countries is, relatively, much easier. In Belgium, legal residents may apply for Belgian citizenship after a three-year residence, or a two-year refugee residence. It is possible to obtain permanent residence after three years in the Netherlands with a working permit. Additionally, the law for “knowledge migrants” in the Netherlands allows highly skilled workers with job offers for a minimum of one year and earning at least 45,000 Euro per annum, to obtain a five-year residence permit and to bring family members (Kicinger, 2013, p. 23).

As nationals from third states are in the unfavorable migrant situation, in order to keep the highly skilled migrants from third states, Swiss Parliament passed the *Neiryneck Initiative* on the eighteenth of June, 2010, which took effect on the first of January 2011. It enables foreign graduates holding a Swiss university-level diploma to be granted easier access to the labor market. To find employment, foreign nationals who have earned a Swiss university-level

diploma will be entitled to stay in Switzerland for six more months from the time of completing their education or postgraduate studies. Those who are successful in securing employment will be issued a work permit, provided the prospective position involves an activity of particular scientific or economic importance (BFM, 2011). Nine years before the Swiss *Neiynck Initiative*, the immigration law of 2002 remarked a change in German immigration policy. According to this law, foreign students graduating from German universities may extend their stay for one year after graduation for job seeking. Highly qualified foreigners can be granted a settlement permit with the omission of the labor market test and without a job offer (Residence Act, sections 16, 18, 19 and 39).

Although the current Swiss foreign working law strictly regulates the limits of short- and long- term working permits, it still provokes the critics about its tendency to create more migrant flows. Some arguments stated that the law only controlled the size of foreign labors but neglected the control over new migrants, which would still cause more long-term migrant stocks. Second, since the long-term social costs of allowing low-skilled workers to enter Switzerland are neither covered by permit issuing authorities nor by employers, it could cause a flow of low-skilled migrant labors (Sheldon, 2001). The biggest Swiss right-wing party, SVP, gained the support from both small business owners and blue-collar workers (Afonso, 2013). The SVP is by far the biggest party in Switzerland, which enjoyed 26.6% of popular vote in 2011, although this was a 2.3% drop compared to 2007. Anti-immigration policy was regularly a highly featured theme on its political agenda. On the ninth of February 2014, a referendum initiated by the SVP, which aims at placing new limits on foreigners living and working in Switzerland, was narrowly approved through Swiss voters (Lopez, 2014).

The integration policy was written in the *Swiss Aliens Law (Ausländergesetz, AuG)*, where integration is listed as a core state task, involving all levels of government and in cooperation with the social partners, non-governmental, and foreigners' organizations (BFM, 2010a). The basic principles are conducted through the local, cantonal, and federal governments. It emphasizes that integration is a two-way process involving both the Swiss and the foreign population. According to the *Swiss Aliens Law*, for Swiss population, openness, acceptance, and the reduction of discrimination are required. Foreign population is asked to respect the basic value of the Federal Constitution (*Bundesverfassung*). Moreover, foreigners are required to maintain the public safety and order, to participate in the economic life and

education, and in particular to gain the knowledge of a national language (AuG, 2005, p. Art. 4).

The command of the national language is the core of Swiss integration policy. The Swiss federal government is going to introduce a “Language Pass (*Sprachenpass*)” in 2015 for foreigners to evaluate their proficiency of Swiss national languages (Häuptli, 2013). Similarly, the immigration law of 2004 in Germany was considered an attempt to enhance integration, where language learning and courses in history and civic society are compulsory for new immigrants and open to those already in the country.

Multiculturalism often shows up in Swiss political agenda. However, this should be distinguished from multiculturalism concepts in migration studies. The Swiss multiculturalism refers to the inner politic towards the coexistence and protection of Swiss cultures from its four language regions. Though Multiculturalism in migration issue is defined in various ways in different countries, it can be understood mainly in two directions: either letting migrants maintain their original culture without becoming part of the large society, or accepting migrants’ cultures while expecting them to participate in the larger society. Multiculturalism is valued by some scholars as the best approach for a society that is concerned with the well-being of immigrants (Phinney, 2013). For many native-born residents of immigrant-receiving countries, non-natives are viewed as a threat (Verkuyten, 2008) and as a result, support for multiculturalism in many immigrant-receiving countries is at or below the midpoint of acceptance (Verkuyten, 2006).

Integration is set as the core concept in the migration policy in Switzerland. Different from the notion of multiculturalism, Switzerland holds a more assimilation-oriented integration policy towards migrants, which requires migrants to pick up one national language and to accept Swiss values and culture. Although in general, the integration approach is mostly adopted among western European states, it also shows the tendency of a more open attitude. For example, the citizenship law of 2000 in Germany has shifted from the concept of an ethnic nation towards the concept of a nation consisting of people living on the same territory (Kicinger, 2013, p. 20). Integration is used in this dissertation to refer to the interactive situation of migrants in the host society. However, integration does not refer to the integration policy in migration issue. The term “integration” is selected because it is widely accepted in an European context regarding migration issue.

1.3 Student Migration and Integration

Woman migrants, children migrants, and certain ethnic groups receive a lot of attention from scholars, however student migrants are somehow neglected. Student migrants, especially college student migrants, are one of the important groups in the global migrants. Different from other migrant groups, student groups share a lot in common, especially their demographic profile. Most college students are young adults and not married, with a high education profile but comparatively low income, and have positive migration reasons. This homogeneous social demographic profile would make the evaluation of other factors in the integration process easier, such as language proficiency and ethnic background.

Student migrants in this study are taken as the research target and as the representative of global young, educated, and potentially high-profile migrants. Not including forced migration reasons, people who are the most likely to migrate tend to be young and/or highly skilled (Fischer, Martin, & Straubhaar, 1997). Migration therefore becomes a high-profile issue, because sending countries stand to lose their valuable workforces, and the country receiving these immigrants stand to gain a great deal from their strengths (Carrington & Detragiache, 1999). In migration studies, migrants classified by gender, age, and race are frequently studied, such as female migrants, adolescent, or senior migrants, and migrants according to ethnic backgrounds. Student migrants are somehow neglected in migration studies, although they are a prominent migrant group in global migration.

Between 2000 and 2011, the number of international students was more than doubled. According to the statistics from OECD, up until 2013 (OECD, 2013), there were almost 4.5 million tertiary students enrolled outside of their country of citizenship. Moreover, international students are now more likely to be enrolled in the highest levels of education than in the past. Among OECD countries, there were on average 20% more foreign students enrolled in advanced research programs in 2011. This proportion exceeds 30% in countries such as Australia, France, and Switzerland (OECD, 2013).

Someone might argue that student migrants are a very unstable migrant group. They jump from one country to another because of attractive education programs or job opportunities. Does it make sense to explore the topic “media use and integration” of this group? First of all, integration does not necessarily imply permanent settlement. It does imply consideration of the rights and obligations of migrants and host societies, of access to different kinds of services and the labor market, and of identification and respect for a core set of values that

bind migrants and host communities in a common purpose (Perruchoud & Redpath-Cross, 2011, p. 51). Surely students are young and free to move with their study and career program. However, the wish and degree of integration varies from person to person and is independent from age, civil status, or gender. International students are generally young and open to learn; they tend to stay and interact with other foreign students. The social impact on their integration motivation can be higher than other migrant groups. On the other hand, it cannot be denied that they might have a higher motivation to integrate, to learn more about the new country, as well as to make new friends.

A short-term migration can sometimes turn into a permanent residence. A migrant can be either a sojourner or an immigrant. A sojourner is a migrant who only intends to spend a short time in the new country. An immigrant leaves the home country intending to make a permanent move. Many sojourners end up becoming immigrants when their temporary move stretches into permanent settlement in the host country (Matsaganis, Katz, & Ball-Rokeach, 2011, p. 52). Based on a representative questionnaire survey of 1,200 students and interviews with students, Findlay et. al concluded that student migration is driven by a diversity of intentions rooted in past experiences and also linked to an imagined future (Findlay, Stam, King, & Ruiz-Gelices, 2005, p. 196). From 2008 to 2009, among international students in the world, about one out of four students will stay in the countries in which they studied, which provides an increasingly important source of skilled workers. This trend has been increasing steadily over the past decade (OECD, 2012). Hence, the choice of staying for study cannot be simply considered to be a temporary period of migrant journey.

For quantitative study, the similar demographic profile of student migrants would help the comparison of some other factors. By selecting student migrants as the study target, some demographic differences are weakened, such as age, generation, and cognition. Scholars suggested that several factors could affect acculturation process as well as specific acculturation-related characteristics, such as age, generation, cognition, gender, personality, motives and means, and domain (Bornstein, 2013). Demographically, student migrants have several aspects in common, such as: age, income, civil status, and education. These similarities therefore enable the comparisons of other factors such as ethnic backgrounds and language skills, unlike most other studies in this field which limits the research only to certain ethnic group, or certain age group. Because there are controlled social demographic features of the study group, the media use effects and the differences between ethnic groups can be explored at large. Another advantage is that students are highly active media users,

especially in social media. Therefore the media use effect of this group can be intensively measured.

The homogeneity in the social demographic profile of student migrants could have a common impact on the integration status. In terms of integration, these social demographics are usually considered to be the positive factors in the integration process, such as high education backgrounds, voluntary migration reasons, young adults, and high cognition. These, at the same time, are the homogeneous demographic profile of student migrants. On the other hand, the other features of student migrants, such as averagely short stay length, no family ties in the host society, and low income, could result in a negative impact on their integration in the host society (see in Table 4).

Table 4: The Demographic Influence on the Integration of Student Migrants

Demographics	Integration	
	Positive	Negative
Age	Young adult	
Education background	High	
Migration reasons	Voluntary	
Cognition	High	
Family ties		No
Income		Low
The stay length in the host society		Short
The stay wish in the host society	From long-term to short-term	

Nevertheless, the social demographic features will be taken into consideration together with the definition and operationalization of integration, as well as in the analysis of media use and integration.

In this research, student migrants include foreign students and Swiss students with migration backgrounds. These students will be divided into three groups: German-speaking foreign students; non-German-speaking foreign students, and Swiss students with migration backgrounds. The comparisons will be carried out among these three groups to describe the influence of the stay length and the family members in Switzerland on the media use characteristics and integration extent.

2. Integration and Media use

2.1 Integration

In the following, the concept of integration will be discussed. First, the origin, development and definition of integration are discussed to show scholarly debate over integration from different disciplines and cultural backgrounds. However, integration is a complex and controversial concept with various definitions. This section does not aim to illustrate all the related concepts but rather to define it in the background of this study. Second and third, the theoretical dimensions and strategies, and the empirical dimensions and operationalization of integration found in existing empirical studies are discussed.

2.1.1 Integration Origin, Development, and Definition

In this section, I am going to discuss about the key concept “integration” and of its origin, development, and definition. Integration has been discussed for a long time in the migration issue. But it is replaced by many other terms with additional meanings or different interpretations. In the following, the most influential scholarly discussions of “integration” will be introduced. However, I do not only select the same term “integration” for its literal meaning, but I am also trying to explain and construct the definition of “integration” from existing literature. Therefore, different terms will be involved, and the connections and developments of these terms will be explained from their research backgrounds in a timeline.

The term “integration” is applied in this study to refer to the acculturation/incorporation process of migrants in a new society. The term is chosen because it was used publicly and widely in Switzerland, and in other European countries as well, such as France and Britain (Favell, 1998). However, “integration” as a topic in mass media in Switzerland is reduced to its political meaning, mainly related to the integration politics in migration issue. Integration, in this study, will be discussed in a broad sense.

Integration as a concept in migration studies has been discussed interdisciplinarily and multi-dimensionally over time. It is unnecessary and impossible to show its complexity in full detail. There are numerous terms for the adapting process of migrants in host society, such as acculturation, adaption, integration, inclusion, and assimilation. These terms are usually understood and interpreted differently under various contexts. In the following, related discussions and definitions will be linked to present the academic origin, development, and

definition of integration. Different terms will be involved, but they are all used to explain the meaning of integration rather than to confuse readers.

Development of the Integration Concept

Early in the 20th century, the idea of acculturation first appeared when social scientists started to theorize about the process of newcomers incorporating into the mainstream culture in the U.S. The “race relation cycle” from Park was the hallmark theory of the Chicago school of urban sociology. According to Park, the cycle had four stages: contact, conflict, accommodation, and assimilation. Park declared that it was “a cycle of events which tends everywhere to repeat itself” and that it can also be seen in other social processes. Migrants would gradually desert old culture traditions and behaviors, and would pick up those from a new society. However, this process would lead migrants to the situation of “marginal man”, in which migrants were pulled to the direction of host culture but drawn back by the culture of origin (Park, 1928). Furthermore, assimilation was considered to be the process when people acquire the memories, sentiments, and attitudes of others, and share their experiences and history, and then are incorporated with them in a common cultural life (Park & Burgess, 1921, p. 735).

Afterwards, anthropologists developed the concept of acculturation. The “continuous first-hand contact” between individuals of different cultures was emphasized as the essential part of acculturation. During this process, there were changes in the original cultural patterns of either or both groups (Redfield, Linton, & Herskovits, 1936). These authors emphasized that group contacts and changes in cultural patterns were essential for that. However, Redfield et al. held that acculturation did not imply that assimilation would ensue automatically (Padilla & Perez, 2003).

Taft developed his assimilation theories based on the across-ethnic group studies in Australia. He identified concepts such as attitudes, frames of reference, social motivation, ego involvement, beliefs, reference groups, role expectations, and role behavior as key aspects of immigrants’ assimilation in the new culture (Taft, 1953). Besides that, he specified seven stages of assimilation: cultural learning (knowledge about the natives, language), positive attitude towards the natives, increased negative attitude to the origin group, accommodation, social acceptance by natives, identification (membership, total inclusion in the receiving society), and converging social norms (between the new and old members of the receiving

society). Each of these stages had two dimensions: internal and external. He further presented that there were four major facets of assimilation: cultural adjustment, national and ethnic identity, cultural competence, and role acculturation (Taft, 1977).

Acculturation equated to assimilation in Gordon's theory (Gordon, 1964). Structural assimilation was the prerequisite of all the other forms of assimilation. By studying the assimilation of newcomers in the American life, Gordon (Gordon, 1964, p. 71) divided assimilation into seven stages: cultural or behavioral assimilation (Acculturation) comes first, then structural, marital (amalgamation), identificational, attitude receptional, behavior receptional, and civic assimilation. "Structural assimilation" was the "keystone of the arch of assimilation" that will lead to other stages of assimilation (Gordon, 1964, p. 81). In his explanation, acculturation happened when newcomers adopted language, dress, and daily customs of the host society (including values and norms); the large-scale entrance of minorities into cliques, clubs, and institutions in the host society was named as structural assimilation; marital assimilation began when widespread intermarriage started; identification assimilation meant the minority felt bonded to the dominant culture; after minorities lost their prejudice and discrimination, they entered the attitude and behavior receptional assimilation; in the end, civic assimilation occurred when there were no value or power struggles. Cultural assimilation/ Acculturation as a necessary first step was considered the top priority on the agenda of immigrant adjustment. However, Gordon argued that acculturation does not automatically lead to other forms of assimilation.

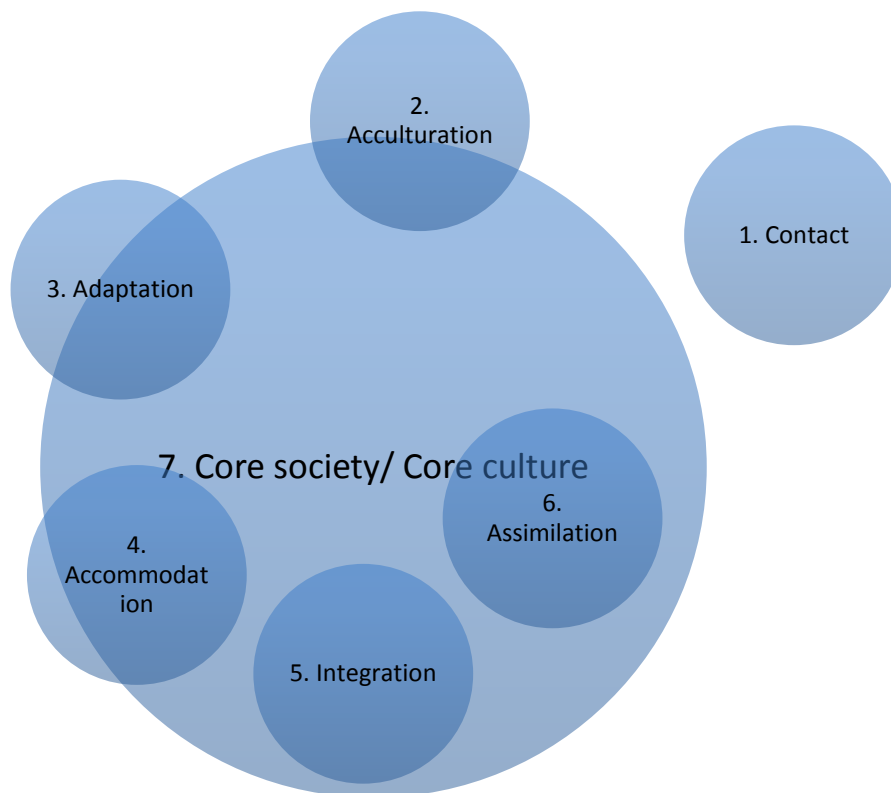
Psychologists pulled the acculturation theory back to the interaction between individuals and the society. Teske and Nelson expanded the notion of acculturation to changes in material traits, behavior patterns, norms, institutional changes, and importantly, values (Teske & Nelson, 1974). Berry further developed the acculturation of immigrants based on the study of newcomers in Canada. His "Acculturation Strategies" was based on various attitudes and behaviors of migrants towards their home and their host culture. He defined four acculturation strategies: Assimilation, Multiculturalism, Marginalization, and Segregation (Berry, 2001).

Padilla and Perez developed the acculturation theories with a multidimensional and quantitative mode, which relied on the two major dimensions: cultural awareness and ethnic loyalty. Cultural awareness referred to the understanding that individuals had of their culture of origin and of their host cultures. Ethnic loyalty, on the other hand, represented the self-ascribed ethnicity of the individuals (Padilla & Perez, 2003). They claimed that individual

differences and personality characteristics were neglected in major theories of acculturation (Padilla & Perez, 2003).

Based on the ethnic studies in America, Barkan tried to identify different terms of integration at different stages by the extent of how close migrants are incorporated in a new society. However, these stages were neither linear nor cycle related. Ethnic groups or ethnic group members were presented as the smaller round and the core society as the large round. Assimilation was the end result of a multistep process that included overlapping phases of contact, acculturation, adaptation, accommodation, and integration. But he added that assimilation did not require the complete loss of one's ancestral memory (Barkan, 2005).

Figure 7: American Ethnicity: A Model of Acculturation, Integration and Assimilation (Barkan, 2005)



There are two views of assimilation in the U.S. One approach considers American society not as a whole, but rather a segmented society, which is divided by social classes. This theory noticed the differences and conflicts inside of the host societies. Segmented assimilation theory suggested the three possible multidirectional patterns of being American. First, the time-honored upward mobility pattern indicated the acculturation and economic integration into the middle-class America. Second, in the opposite direction, the downward mobility

indicated the acculturation and parallel integration into the underclass. Third, economic integration into middle-class America that determined which segment of American society that migrants would assimilate into (Portes & Zhou, 1993; Zhou, 1997). The segmented assimilation theory suggested that the children of contemporary immigrants became incorporated into the system of stratification in the host society, and also suggested the different outcomes of this process (Zhou, 1997, p. 975).

Another alternative view of assimilation viewed integration as linear, generationally driven, and a necessary prerequisite for successful incorporation into the U.S. It put emphasis on the function of social actors in the incorporation process and stresses the influence of contextual factors (Levitt, 2003). From this perspective, assimilation was an interactive journey along multiple non-linear pathways (Alba & Nee, 1997; Gans, 1992). The relationship between transnational involvements and assimilation was shaped by the kinds of activities migrants participate in (Levitt, 2003).

In German research on migrants, assimilation is a predominant topic (Geissler & Weber-Menges, 2009). German sociologist Esser (Esser, 2001) addressed that “Social integration into the accommodating society is ... actually *only* possible in the form of *assimilation*” (Emphasis in the original). In his argument, the opposite pole of assimilation is segregation. On the basis of Esser’s theory, intercultural integration was developed as the middle course between assimilation and segregation. The concept of intercultural integration sought a proper balance between the equal rights of minorities to maintain a certain cultural difference and the demands of the majority for partial acculturation and adaptation whereas assimilative integration aimed at adaptation of minorities of the majority culture (Geissler & Weber-Menges, 2009).

Assimilation is the last stage of incorporation (Barkan, 2005), or to some other scholars, it is the most extreme form of acculturation (Perruchoud & Redpath-Cross, 2011, p. 11). The successful assimilation meant the disappearance of the minority group as an identifiable entity (Shibutani & Kwan, 2005). Assimilation involves the subsuming of language, traditions, values, mores, and behavior, or even fundamental vital interests. Although the traditional cultural practices of the group are unlikely to be completely abandoned, as a whole, assimilation will lead one group to be socially indistinguishable from other members of the society.

“Assimilation is a process of boundary reduction that can occur when members of two or more societies, ethnic groups, or smaller social groups meet. It is a variable, not an attribute (Yinger, 2005).”

Integration, in this study, refers to the positive interaction with the dominant society, individually or as a group, while one may still keep his or her cultural identity and tradition. Different from assimilation, one does not abandon his or her language or traditions. In this sense, they usually hold a cultural pluralism and a hybrid identity. They can have dual or multiple lives.

“Integration does not entail the loss of one’s own cultural identity but rather a deeper involvement in the other culture (D’Haenens & Peeters, 2005, p. 227).”

Koff emphasized the importance of social participation in the process of integration. “Integration is not defined in terms of political rights or notions of cultural identity, but rather in pragmatic terms of immigrant participation to local political, social, and economic communities (Koff, 2008, p. 27).” Furthermore, he explained that participation was the core of integration since it included both access to host systems and migrant willingness to take part. Therefore, he has defined integration as “the participation of immigrants in host economic, social and political communities.” Similarly, in sociology, social participation is also the core in socialization theory. Socialization has been defined as the processes when humans learn to acquire the skills to interact with others and function properly in human society. This process begins at infancy. Likely, when people start to live in a new society, they have to obtain some new skills.

As from *The Glossary of Migration*, “integration” can be defined as the processes by which migrants become accepted into society, both as individuals and as groups. It generally refers to a two-way process of adaptation by migrants and host societies (Perruchoud & Redpath-Cross, 2011, p. 51). Theoretically, integration can be broadly defined as the construction of a unit or entity (Wilke, 2002). In literature, systemic integration and social integration are distinguished from macro and micro levels (Lockwood, 1964; Pöttker, 2005, p. 30). Systemic integration puts emphasis on the acceptance of an individual by the society. On the other hand, social integration takes the perspective of individuals and focuses on their motivations, orientations, and aims. Two dimensions of social integration are defined as social-structural and social-cultural integration (Geissler, 2005).

Besides the dominant assimilation-oriented studies, some scholars suggested transnationalism as a model of integration. It embodied a critique of classical assimilation theories, but also of ethnic pluralism. This perspective holds that many migrants settle and integrate into the new society but maintain cross-border ties and networks with their old homes simultaneously (Faist, Fauser, & Reisenauer, 2013). This theory indicates that migrants have dual lives. Assimilation and transnationalism often coexist in the lives of immigrants and their offspring (Morawska, 2003).

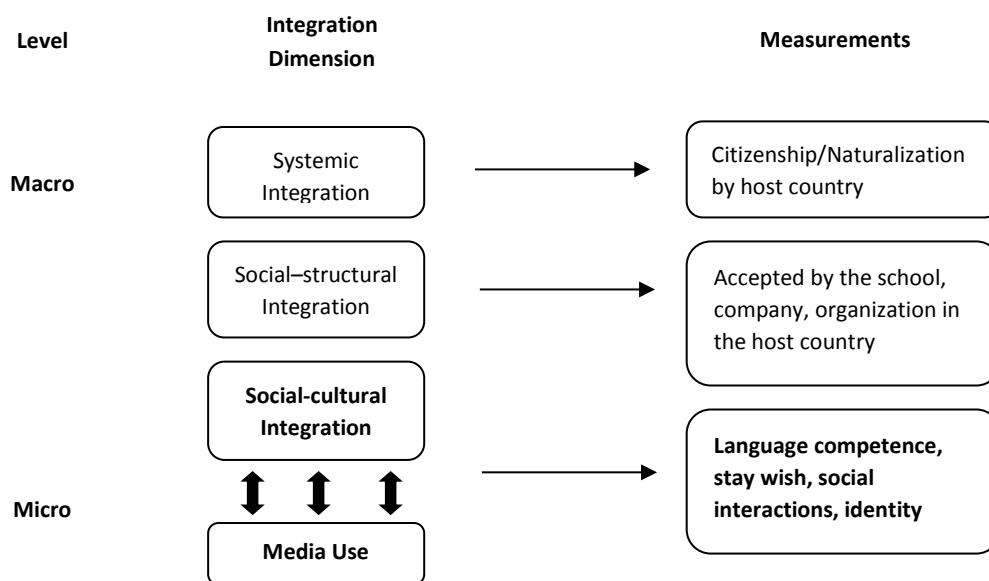
Above, I selected the discussions over integration in the field of sociology, anthropology, and psychology. These theories explored integration from different aspects. Some discussed the integration process and defined various stages of this process, some analyzed the relations between integration and the structure of the major society, and some distinguished integration from structural to cultural levels. Because of immigration traditions, the earliest and majority of theories were developed in immigrant countries such as the U.S., Australia, and Canada. The student migrants, who are studied in this research, are considered to be structurally integrated because they are accepted by one of the universities in the host society. Therefore, social-cultural integration instead of structural/systemic integration is investigated in this study.

I agree that integration is a process. The integration measured in this study is understood as a result of the migrants' interaction with the host society until the point when they participated in the online survey. However, I will avoid naming different integration results as stages, but rather as integration types, since not every migrant would necessarily reach the last stage of integration. Integration is considered to be the subjective choice of individuals, which happens when migrants keep their social contacts and change their cultural patterns and identifications in the new society.

2.1.2 Integration Dimensions, Factors, and Strategies

Integration has several dimensions. This study discusses the interaction of media use and social-cultural integration at the micro level. The following figure shows the levels and dimensions of integration and the measurements of integration.

Figure 8: Integration Dimensions and Media Use



Social integration means the *inclusion* (or exclusion) of *actors* in an existing social system, for example an educational facility or occupational activity in a company, and following on from this, the equal or unequal *distribution* of characteristics among *aggregates* or *categories* of actors, for example in relation to income based on ethnic group. As opposed to this, *system integration* concerns the *cohesion* of entire *social systems* and refers to the cohesion beyond different elements of a society, for example, groups of ethnic minorities or functional subsystems (Emphasis in original) (Esser, 2006, p. 7).

Furthermore, Geissler identified three dimensions of social-cultural integration.

Table 5: Three Dimensions of social-cultural Integration (Geissler, 2005a, p. 59)

Cognitive integration	Elemental acculturation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - constitution, law, basic value - responsibilities (especially language) 	Right for equal cultural difference
Social integration	Interethnic contacts and communication	Ethnic communities
Identity integration	Hierarchical	Double identity

Some authors distinguish between *structural integration* and *socio-cultural integration*. The former is described as “full participation in social institutions” and the latter as “the social contacts that members and organizations of minorities maintain with society as a whole, and the cultural adaptations to that society” (original see: Vermeulen and Penninx, 1994, p.3; Dagevos, 2001, quoted from: Engbersen, 2003, p. 61). Furthermore, Vermeulen (1995, quoted from: Engbersen, 2003, p. 61) added two aspects of integration: firstly, *formal participation* in sectors such as education, the labor market, and informal participation with ethnic minorities in the sphere of leisure activities, and secondly, *the attitudes* of ethnic minorities towards the significance of participation in the receiving society (Emphasis in the original). More in detail, Vermeulen suggested that

“Informal participation” together with orientation towards the receiving society” were indicators of the “ethnic-cultural integration” of ethnic minorities while “formal participation” is an indicator of “social-economic integration”(Engbersen, 2003, p. 61).

The structural dimension corresponds largely with the functional and moral dimensions. The cultural dimension encompasses particularly the expressive dimension. The expressive dimension involved the extent to which citizens were able to develop their individual and shared identities. If an individual or group was not recognized, the result might be an identity crisis or alienation (Engbersen, 2003, p. 62). The following table sums up the three dimensions of social integration and their possible negative expressions.

Table 6: Dimensions of Integration (Engbersen, 2003, p. 62; Peters, 1993, p. 105)

Dimension	Functional	Moral	Expressive
Problem	Social position (labour, education)	Social norms	Cultural expressions
Policy objective	Equality and Equity	Rules of law Citizenship Social cohesion	Development of individual and shared identities
Negative	Social and spatial exclusion	Anomie Disintegration	Alienation Identity crisis

Based on the comparative examination of five empirical cases of ethnic groups in the U.S., Morawska suggested the coexistence of transnationalism and assimilation of immigrants and their offspring (Morawska, 2003). More than 40 factors influencing assimilation and transnationalism were revealed and they were summarized into four aspects: first, sender and receiver societies, second, outer (surrounding) and inner (intragroup) local environments of immigrants in the host country, third, immigrants themselves, and fourth, the additional factors specific for Transnationalism/Assimilation modes among the second generation.

Table 7: Local conditions in immigrants' place of settlement in receiving country (Morawska, 2003, p. 163)

External	Intragroup
Structure and dynamics of the economy	Group size and residential concentration/segregation from native-born Americans
Degree and institutional embeddedness of ethnic/racial/segregation/concentration	Proportions of foreign- and American- borns
Civic-political culture and practice regarding immigrants, particularly of different race*	Group socioeconomic characteristics
Openness/closure of local political system	Immigrant/ethnic community's institutional completeness
Native perceptions of/ behavior toward immigrants, especially of different race	Degree of sociocultural enclosure
Degree of inter-group social	Sojourn/diaspora collective mentality*

exclusion/inclusion	Internal organization and leadership (Transnational, Assimilation, T/A orientations and activities)
	Group sense of civic entitlement in host society

* Factors affecting simultaneously transnationalism and assimilation

Characteristics of (individual) immigrants (Morawska, 2003, p. 163)

- Cultural capital (education, occupational skills, access to technological resources, advance acculturation, life goals, and values)
- Social capital (networks of information and assistance)
- Race
- Gender
- Socioeconomic position and prospects of mobility*
- Residential/work isolation or contact with native-born Americans
- Number of years spent in receiving country*
- Sojourn or permanent (im) migration*
- Presence/number of economically dependent family members in home country and/or real estate/other possessions
- Intensity of ideological and/or emotional attachment to home country*

Factors specific for second-generation Transnationalism/ Assimilation

- Socioeconomic status of parental home
- Parental pressure toward assimilation or/and transnational involvement*
- Intergenerational conflicts (at home and in ethnic community)
- Position in life-cycle*

* Factors affecting simultaneously transnationalism and assimilation

Moreover, she mentioned four factors that could affect integration: first, minimal or nonexistent life of ethnic networks and institutions (this characteristic usually coincided with residential dispersion), second, minimal or no extrinsic cultural barriers to personal social contacts between ethnic group members and members of the dominant, Anglo-Protestant group (e.g., the language barrier or religious prohibitions such as kashrut), third, absence of a relationship of economic dominance/subordination in the local environment, and fourth,

minimal or nonexistent prejudice at the individual level on the part of members of the dominant group (Morawska, 1994, p. 79).

Morawska discussed integration from different aspects and distinguished the characteristics of (individual) first and second migrants. The contact with a host society personally or structurally were considered to be the core factors that could affect integration. Similarly, in a discussion of assimilation into the larger society, Shibutani and Kwan also emphasized the interaction between migrants and the host society in the transformation process of assimilation. Mainly, it depends on three aspects.

The first aspect is *the opportunities* migrants have *for contacts* within the dominant group, and this often depends upon one's position in the minority group. Moreover, the author implied that contacts also included indirect contacts – through the media of mass communication. Ethnocentrism was broken through communication channels. Secondly, it depends in part upon the *extent to which the migrant believes his or her personal values can be realized* in the conventional roles available. Third, the orientation of assimilation is also reinforced by *cordial interpersonal relations* with individuals of the dominant group or with others who feel as they do, as well as the interpersonal relations with other members of the minority group (Emphasis in the original) (Shibutani & Kwan, 2005, pp. 65 –66).

Another American scholar Barkan (2005) regarded language skills, political participation and educational background as the main factors when integration was taking place.

“Integration is taking place when an ethnic group person becomes bilingual (or monolingual English); moves beyond the boundaries of his or her ethnic community and begins to associate on a regular basis with members of the larger society (or other ethnic groups); participates in external organizations (such as labor unions, public service groups, and charitable, professional, business, or fraternal associations); is involved in the general political processes; and (depending on age) goes through some phase of the educational system (usually the public schools, possibly some parochial ones). The person who has begun to integrate has thus gained some acceptance from the larger society, has become bicultural, and has begun to crystallize dual (or multiple) identities (Barkan, 2005, p. 190).”

More specifically, thirteen factors were suggested as the adaptive elements, which influenced the movements from one stage to another. They were: identity, language usage, norm/values/culture, associations/organizational membership, networks, personal

relationships and spousal choice, status reference/source of recognition, homeland interests, citizenship and political involvement, residence/geographical mobility, occupation and occupational mobility, personal goals, and boundary maintenance/interactions with the larger society (Barkan, 2005, pp. 193 – 194).

Psychologist John W. Berry developed his theory of “Acculturation Strategies” on various attitudes and behaviors of migrants towards home and host culture. He claims that acculturation is in essence a neutral term, which shows a change in an individual, or a group of individuals, of different cultures coming into a new culture. When different cultures encounter one another, he uses acculturation to describe both cultural and psychological processes and outcomes of intercultural contacts (Berry, 1997, pp. 7 – 8). In his theoretical framework, integration and assimilation are different forms of acculturation, see below:

Table 8: Acculturation Strategies (Berry, 2001, p. 618)

Acculturation Strategies		Maintenance of Heritage Culture and Identity				
		Yes	No		Yes	No
Relationships sought among groups	Yes	Integration	Assimilation	Yes	Multiculturalism	Melting pot
	No	Separation	Marginalization	No	Segregation	Exclusion
Strategies of Ethno-cultural Groups				Strategies of Larger Society		

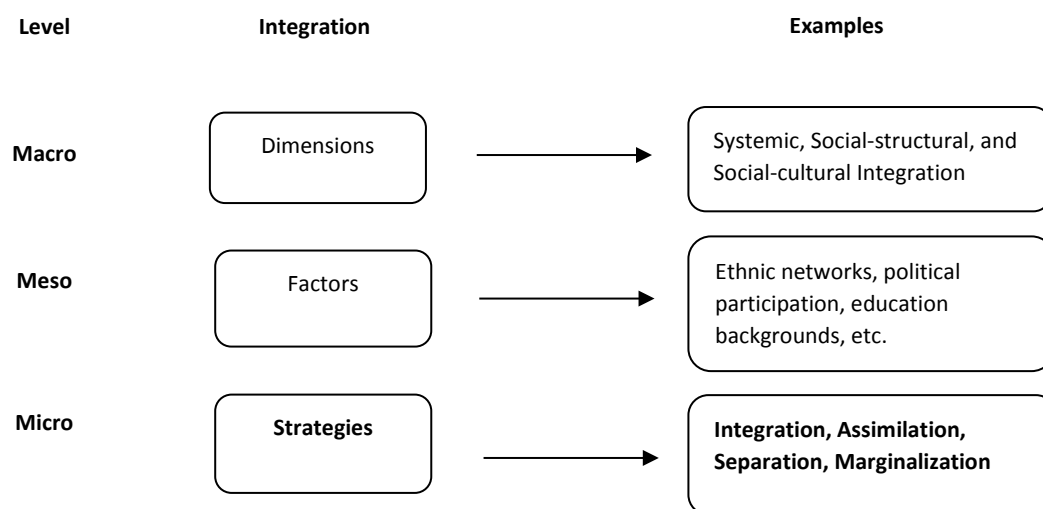
Combined with language acquisition theory, sociologist Esser has developed four acculturation strategies from a linguistic point of view. He later explained why he placed language in such an important place since language is, on one hand, a part of cultural- social integration; on the other hand, it is also particularly important for migrants to be structurally integrated into host society (Esser, 2006, p. 8).

Table 9: Types of social integration and language proficiency (Esser, 2006, p. 8)

		Integration into the Ethnic Group of Home Country	
		Yes	No
Integration into the Host Society	Yes	Multiple inclusion/ competent bilingualism	Assimilation/ monolingual assimilation
	No	Segmentation monolingual segmentation	Marginalization/ limited bilingualism

The dimensions, factors and strategies of integration are discussed above. To reduce confusion, I created a figure of these terms to show the different levels of integration. The dimensions discuss integration at the theoretical (macro) level, which identify three dimensions of integration from systemic, social-structural, and social-cultural levels.

Figure 9: Integration Dimensions, Factors, and Strategies



Integration factors refer to the elements from the social (meso) level, which could influence the process of integration. This has a wide range of from social environment to individual situations and interactions. For examples, Morawska (2003) defined 40 factors that could influence integration and Barkan (2005) defined 13 factors, such as existent life of ethnic networks, political participation, and education backgrounds.

When discussing integration dimensions and factors, the relation between integration, society, and personal social experiences are emphasized. In this study, integration is not a result created by certain social environments, but rather a subjective process that was chosen by individual migrants. Integration strategy, in this sense, represents the individual choice of various integration situations. Though many integration choices exist, psychologist Berry (2001) theorized them into four strategies: Integration, Separation, Assimilation, and Marginalization. Based on Berry's strategies, other scholars developed integration types together with certain factors, such as language proficiency (Esser, 2006).

Integration strategies will be intensively investigated in this research. The four strategies named by Berry (2001) will be treated as the theoretical framework. In the following section, I will discuss how to measure and define different integration strategies. However, the

purpose of this study is not to prove whether this framework exists in the population of student migrants in Switzerland, but to examine the applicability of this framework and to discuss whether it new integration strategies exist.

2.1.3 Integration: Empirical Dimensions and Operationalization Suggestions

When studying integration, there are two research approaches, quantitative and qualitative. Sociologists, communication scientists, and psychologists typically use quantitative methods in research, such as questionnaires and experiments (Berry, 2006; Bonfadelli et al., 2007; Kissau & Hunger, 2008b; Piga, 2008; Trebbe et al., 2010). This approach describes the general feature of a population, however neglects the differences among human natures. Ethnologists, culture study scholars, and anthropologists mostly employ a qualitative approach which may involve field observation, face-to-face interviews, and case studies (Christensen, 2012; Dahinden, 2010; Georgiou, 2006; Hepp, Bozdog, & Suna, 2009; Madianou, 2005). Other approaches, such as the ethnicization approach (Morawska, 1994) and the dialogical approach (Mahendran, 2013), also employ qualitative methods. Qualitative approaches focus on the explanatory interpretation of the meaning of integration and pays high attention to the individual differences. However, it has the risk of lacking subjectivity.

No matter which approach is applied, the conception of “integration” requires its operational dimensions, and this study employs a quantitative approach by applying an online standardized survey; integration therefore needs to be identified with certain indicators. In the following, I will review the integration indicators, which were defined in existing studies.

The U.S.

Ethnic topics and migration issue were widely studied in the U.S. Most researchers apply quantitative indicators when studying acculturation. In a study of media consumption and acculturation among Chinese immigrants in Silicon Valley in the U.S., the motivation and level of acculturation were designed with statements on five-point scale (Hwang & He, 1999). Motivation for acculturation was measured by seven statements on a five-point scale, which included the desire to become American citizens, the participation in American politics, the knowledge of American customs, and the wish to be part of the American mainstream. The level of acculturation was asked with 18 statements on a five-point scale, which involved

such aspects as: the use of English at home and in the workplace, the association with Americans, shopping preferences and patterns, participation in American politics, adoption of American customs including holidays, concern about social issues in the U.S., the comfort around Americans, and preferences for American culture over Chinese culture. At the end, the speaking, writing, listening, and reading abilities in English were measured with a four-point scale. The result of the study showed that among the acculturation needs, three indicators found to be the most salient. The indicators were **English language ability, acquisition of financial and legal information, and acquaintance with the host culture and customs.**

Concerning the ethnic identity alone, there is a classic measurement called the “The Multi-group Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) (Phinney, 1992)”. MEIM focuses mainly on the ethnic identity, and it was tested among ethnic groups and applied beyond the English-speaking world, such as in countries where Spanish and French are spoken. This measurement comprised two factors: first, ethnic identity search, and second, affirmation, belonging, and commitment. They were measured with twelve statements on four scales.

Table 10: The Multi-group Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) (Phinney, 1992b)

Ethnic Identity Search	<p>I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs.</p> <p>I am active in organizations or social groups that include mostly members of my own ethnic group.</p> <p>I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my ethnic group membership.</p> <p>In order to learn more about my ethnic background, I have often talked to other people about my ethnic group.</p>
Affirmation, Belonging, and Commitment	<p>I have a clear sense of my ethnic background and what it means for me.</p> <p>I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to.</p> <p>I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group.</p> <p>I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me.</p> <p>I have a lot of pride in my ethnic group.</p> <p>I participate in cultural practices of my own group, such as special food, music, or customs.</p> <p>I feel a strong attachment towards my own ethnic group.</p> <p>I feel good about my cultural or ethnic background.</p>

Initially, the MEIM was developed to measure the process of ethnic identity development in adolescents and young adults. Later, it was used with participants from ages 12 and up, including adults. The author suggested that the appropriate age range for the validity of this measurement might not be appropriate with younger children because of their level of cognitive understanding. Ethnic identity was related positively with coping ability, mastery, self-esteem, and optimism, and negatively related with loneliness and depression (Roberts et al., 1999). In contrast, while acculturation measurements concentrate on the interaction with the mainstream society, MEIM focuses on the self-recognition of identity. Therefore, more subjective indicators were involved, such as happiness, feelings, satisfaction, and ethnic pride.

Germany

In the investigation of young Turkish migrants in Germany, Trebbe (Trebbe, 2009, p. 178) defined integration in three dimensions. First, *formal and language integration* in a national context, which also includes the wish to be naturalized as German and the wish to stay in Germany; second, *social integration* which refers to the daily interaction between migrants groups and their contacts with a host society, and also their trust in public bodies in Germany such as school, hospital, and other social institutions; third, *political integration* which indicates specially the trust in political-administrative system such as police, political parties, and administrative offices. Trebbe's definition of integration emphasized the connection and participation between migrants and mainstream society.

Table 11: Integration Indicators (Trebbe, 2009)

Formal and language integration	German language proficiency
	The wish to be naturalized as German
	The wish to stay in Germany
Social integration	Contacts between migrant groups
	Contacts with Germans
	Trust in German public bodies
Political integration	Trust in German political-administrative system

Other integration studies gave more attention to migrants' private sphere. In a survey on the integration of students with migration backgrounds in Germany, integration was measured in

four relationships (König, 2001). Additionally, participants were asked to compare several questions between Germany and their home countries, such as the satisfaction in Germany, the comfortableness in their home country, and the “home feeling” between countries. In the end, identity and self-assessment questions were involved.

Table 12: Integration Measurements (König, 2001)

The relationship with Germany	German language proficiency
	Acceptance problem by German society
	Information resources in Germany
	News interests among host, home, and international society
The relationship with home country	Language proficiency of mother language
	Visiting frequency to home country
	Immigration reasons
	The length of stay in Germany
	Acceptance problem by the home country
	Information resources in home country
The family relationship	Migration background
	Integration level of parents
The civil status	The migration background of partner
	Integration level of partner

Based on the empirical studies on migrant groups in Germany, Pries identified three incorporation types: job-market, educational, and identification incorporation. He noted that **the social relationship** of migrants and local residents, and also **the wish to stay** of migrants in the host society were two important aspects for identification incorporation (Pries, 2010).

The Netherlands

When studying the media use, identity construction, and integration of four largest ethnic minority groups in the Netherlands, d’Haenens defined integration with six dimensions and 35 questions (D’Haenens & Peeters, 2005, p. 211) in relation to the acceptance of Dutch values and norms, integration motivation, religion and language proficiency, social contacts with Dutch natives, and Dutch identity.

Table 13: Integration Operationalization of D'Haenens & Peeters (2005, p. 211)

Command and use of Dutch language	<p>Understanding, speaking, reading, and writing</p> <p>Language proficiency regarding media content consumption</p> <p>The frequency of speaking Dutch language</p>
Understanding of Dutch society	<p>How Dutch people feel about a number of things in connection with daily life? How the average Dutch person lives and works and what his/her house looks like?</p> <p>How things go in Dutch schools, hospitals, municipal services, offices, and other institutions that citizens may come in contact with?</p> <p>What Dutch laws and rules permit and do not permit?</p> <p>What goes on in national politics?</p>
Endorsement of norms prevalent in Dutch society *	<p>A woman should quit her job when she has a baby.</p> <p>It is better for elderly parents to live with their children than in an old people's home.</p> <p>In the Netherlands contacts between men and women are too loose.</p> <p>In the Netherlands journalists have too much freedom to say and write as they wish.</p> <p>It is a pity that religion controls daily life in the Netherlands less and less.</p>
Social contact with native Dutch people	<p>Whether interviewees occasionally visited Dutch people at their homes, and if so, how often.</p>
Dutch identity	<p>To what extent they felt Dutch as well as Turkish, etc.</p> <p>To what extent they thought were regarded by others as Turkish, etc.</p> <p>To what extent they expected to remain in the Netherlands the rest of their lives.</p>
Motivation with respect to integration	<p>To what extent is the Netherlands where one can really feel at home?</p> <p>How important do they feel it is to know much about the Netherlands?</p> <p>How important do they feel to have contacts with Dutch people?</p>

*The more respondents reject these statements, the better they are integrated into Dutch society.

Switzerland

In the study of integration of Italian migrants in Switzerland, Piga (Piga, 2008, p. 109) defined three integration indexes and sub-dimensions: cultural integration which includes **language proficiency, information and topic interests, political knowledge and participation**; social integration which combines **personal contacts** and **institutional relation**; identificational integration which refers to **perceived identity**.

In two surveys in 2000, Swiss census and the Swiss Household Panel (SHP) conducted surveys, in which cultural integration in Switzerland was investigated. These two surveys focused mainly on three aspects of migrants' life spheres: school, couple/family life, and employment. 15 cultural integration indicators were defined as in Table 14 (Kohler, 2012a). This Swiss national survey covered migrants from all different ages and with various ethnic backgrounds and largely on the marriage situation and gender differences.

Table 14: Cultural Integration Indicators (Kohler, 2012a, pp. 220–221)

Educational attainment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The number of years of education
Marriage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If married
Mixed couple	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If a Swiss individual has a partner from a different country of origin (neither of the partners is Swiss are excluded)
Age gap between partners	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The age difference between the male and female partners
Education gap between partners	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The difference in number of years of education between the male and female partners
Early marriage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If an individual is married (limited to women aged between 18 and 25 years)
Cohabitation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If an individual lives in cohabitation
Fertility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The number of children of women aged 40 years or more
Divorce	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If divorced
Female labour force participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If a woman (25 and 62 years) is in the labour force
Main language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If an individual uses one of the four Swiss national languages (French, German, Italian, Romansh) as his main language

Feelings towards Switzerland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In favor of more equality between Swiss and foreigners • In favor of opening Swiss traditions
Gender attitudes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Child suffers if mother is working • Women penalized in general
Religious attitudes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation in religious services • Prayers
Political attitudes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Political affiliation • Satisfaction with Swiss democracy

China

Beyond the western world, there are studies on the social integration problem in the urbanization of developing countries, such as the integration of rural migrant workers in urban regions. In a study that analyzed the influence of national labor migrants in Shanghai, scholars (Zhang & Lei, 2008, p. 121) defined four dimensions of integration: psychological, cultural, identical, and economic factors and also employed eleven integration indicators. In general, the integration level of rural migrant workers was low. The authors suggested that similar to international migration, national migrants also had to cross several boundaries to achieve social integration.

Table 15: Integration Indicators by Zhang & Lei (2008, p. 121)

Psychological factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accompanied family members • Social interaction • Social psychological distance • Social circles • Social, occupational and living satisfaction
Cultural factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language proficiency • Acquaintance with local culture • Acceptance of local value
Identical factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identification
Economic factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employment • Residence permit

To conclude, although integration indicators vary in different studies, there is a consensus among some indicators, such as language proficiency, connection with the mainstream society in regards to home society, and the participation in a host society. Among all the indicators, language proficiency is regarded as the most important and essential indicator among all studies.

Besides language proficiency, identity is frequently referred to as one of the integration indicators in many studies. I agree that identity transformation is an important theme that is worth to be studied alone, and it is designed as one of the integration indicators in this study. Media and identities are not linked by a causal relationship (Madianou, 2005, p. 536). Identity is a more comprehensive process, and the influence of media use is therefore weakened together with other factors like: psychological situations, personal memories and experiences, and cultures and traditions. In addition, college students are the main subjects investigated in this study, and identity construction is not the significant feature of this target group. The most important time for identity construction is during adolescence and young adulthood, although the process can continue throughout the life span (Phinney, 2013). But media use does affect identity:

“Although media do not determine identities, they do contribute in creating symbolic communicative spaces that either include or exclude, thereby affecting audiences’ media experiences and discourses about their identities (Madianou, 2005, p. 522) . ”

Based on the former studies, I define seven integration factors: Language Competence, Social Interaction in Daily Life, Psychological Distance towards Local Residents, Satisfaction in Host Society, The Wish to Stay in a Host Society, Various Identities, and Self-Assessment. Some indicators like social, occupational, and living satisfaction have been accepted and combined into Satisfaction in Host Society. Political integration and participation was abandoned. This indicator was used in the study of mono-ethnic migrants and among the mono-ethnic group there is a part of the second generation who enjoy the same political participation opportunities as local residents. In this study, political integration has been understood on a psychological level and therefore merged into psychological satisfaction. In addition, other factors, like accompanied family members, was transferred to the demography section; information and topic interests are asked in the media use part.

Table 16: Integration Indicators

	Integration Indicator	Integration
1.	Language Competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High German Proficiency • Swiss German Proficiency • Language Use Frequency
2.	Social Interaction in Daily Life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Friends Circle Description • Meeting Friends Frequency
3.	Psychological Distance towards local Residents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To have local residents as friends • To marry local residents
4.	Satisfaction in Host Society	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Institute and University • Living situation • Swiss media • Migration Policy in Switzerland • Attitude of Swiss towards migrants • The Swiss society
5.	The Wish to stay in Host Society	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Plan to stay in Switzerland after graduation • Swiss naturalization desire
6.	Various Identities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Belonging to a region in Switzerland or Switzerland • Belonging to a region in home country or home country • Belonging to a continent • Belonging to both Switzerland and home country • Cosmopolitan • Belonging to a overseas community of home country • Belonging to international community of migrants
7.	Self- assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integration level self-estimation

In order to represent the subjective understanding and evaluation of integration, I added self – assessment of integration as an indicator to balance all of the other theoretical integration indicators. Moreover, one close-ended question on five scales was designed to evaluate “What does integrate into Switzerland mean to you” by participants. As agreed among

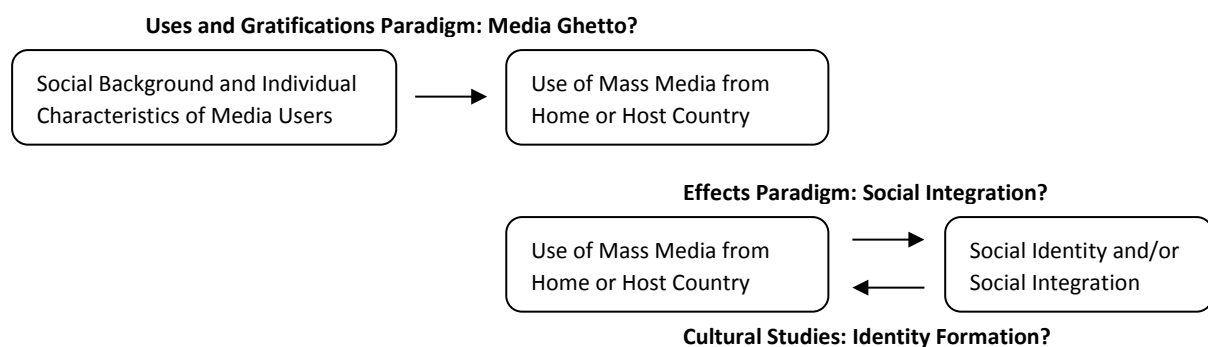
scholars, integration is such a comprehensive word that it is impossible to define it with a single dimension. Acculturation differs among individuals. By adding, “What does integrate into Switzerland mean to you” followed by an obligatory open-ended question of self-definition, I try to evaluate the significance of existing integration indicators and at the same time introduce new ones from empirical results.

2.2 Media Use and Integration

2.2.1 Three Existing Research Approaches

In the research field of media use and integration of migrants, there are three mainstream theoretical approaches, which explore the topic from two directions. The following figure shows the different research traditions.

Figure 10: Media use and migrants: Two opposed research traditions (Bonfadelli, 2007:144)



Uses and Gratifications Paradigm

Analyzing the uses and functions of media is certainly the central concept of this paradigm, and media use is treated as a dependent variable. A leading hypothesis of this research perspective claims that ethnic minorities in most European countries prefer to use media from their homeland and are therefore trapped in a so-called “media ghetto”.

Media Effects Paradigm

The *Media Effects Paradigm* focuses on social integration from the media-centric starting point instead of media users. It is hypothesized that the persistent use of media from the homeland and in the language of origin will result in dysfunctional effects of social and

cultural integration. Immigrants exclusively using homeland media will be less integrated and are labeled as separatists in terms of Adoni et al. (2006). For media context research, Agenda-setting and Framing theories are often applied to examine the effects of reports on migration issues.

Cultural Studies Paradigm

The theoretical tradition of *Cultural Studies* is media-user centric and claims that media use is an active interpretation of media by users. This is opposite to the *Media Effect Paradigm*. Identity is the key topic in Cultural Studies. As a consequence, this theoretical perspective suggests that there is a third way of forming identity by using home and host media.

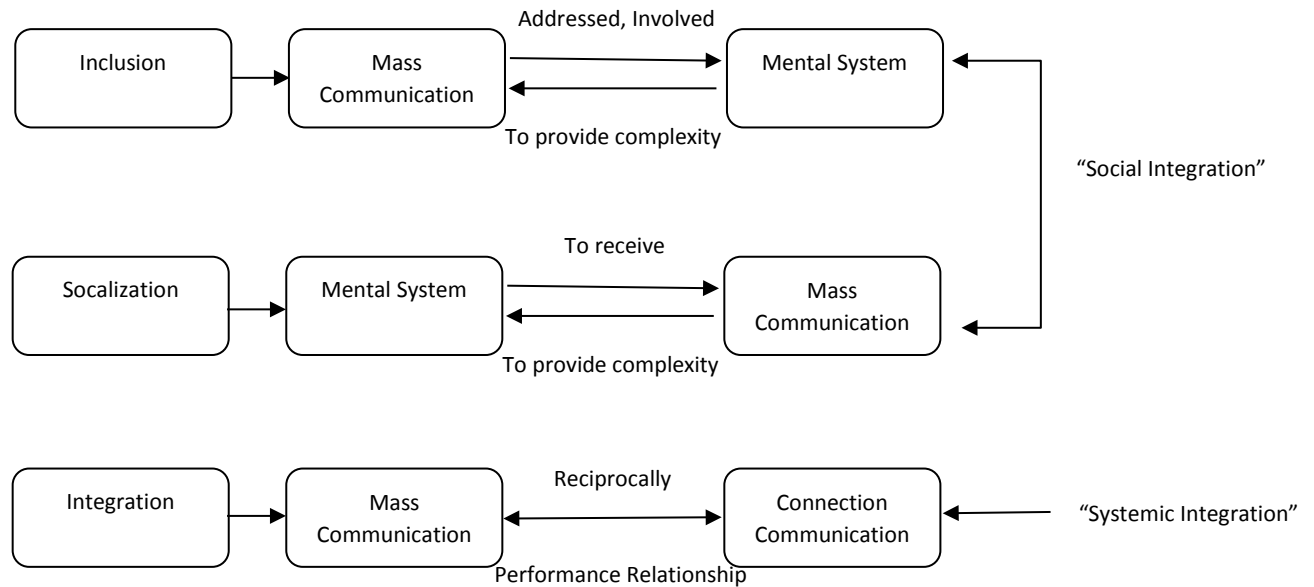
This study applies the *Media Effects Paradigm* and discusses whether different media use behaviors will result in corresponding integration categories.

2.2.2 Media Use as a Mean of Integration

Almost thirty years ago, American scholar (Subervi-Velez, 1986) noticed the influence of mass media use and ethnic assimilation on integration. In one research proposal of mass media, ethnic assimilation and pluralism on Hispanics, he summarized that “communication patterns per se are indicative of assimilation, pluralism, or ethnicity; and communication patterns contribute to some aspect of people’s psychological, cultural, social, political, or economic orientations.”

In the *Media Effect Paradigm*, media use is the center of the integration process. Scholars see integration itself as a communicative process, and mass communication plays a vital role in the whole process of integration (Sutter, 2002). Sutter illustrated a figure of both social and systemic integration, where mass communication is the core in each process (see in Figure 11). Media functioned as an actual and symbolic integration tool in the processing and delivery of topics from every social sectors (Jarren, 2000). Through mass media, both online and in print, migrants are informed about the host society as well as the international issues from the point of view of the host society itself. The interactive and user-generated characters of social media enable migrants to keep in touch with people, whether in their home society or in their host society, as well as to organize and participate in local affairs.

Figure 11: Integration as a communicative process (Sutter, 2002, p. 125)



The term “Media Integration” is proposed by some German scholars, which is defined as the integration of ethnic minorities into a media system and into a public sphere produced and sustained by mass media (Geissler & Weber-Menges, 2009). Different from the dominant assimilative integration concept in German migration research, the concept of “Intercultural Integration” is orientated in the principle of Canadian multiculturalism - “unity-within-diversity” - the rights of minorities to be different, limited by the rights of the majority to get respect for its laws and core values (Geissler & Pöttker, 2006).

“Media integration means integration of ethnic minorities into the media system and into the public. Intercultural media integration is a middle course between media assimilation (minorities are an assimilated part of the German public) and media segregation (minorities are excluded from the German public and use their own ethnic media). It is based on the principle of mutual communication between and mutual knowledge of mainstream and minority cultures (Geissler & Pöttker, 2006, p. 15). ”

Under this theoretical framework, there are three types of media integration: media segregation, assimilative media integration, and intercultural media integration. Besides dominant mainstream media in the host society, migrants are able to use ethnic media, which is produced by and for minorities. Media segregation shows up when migrants primarily use

ethnic media and consequently isolate themselves from mainstream society and the dominant public sphere.

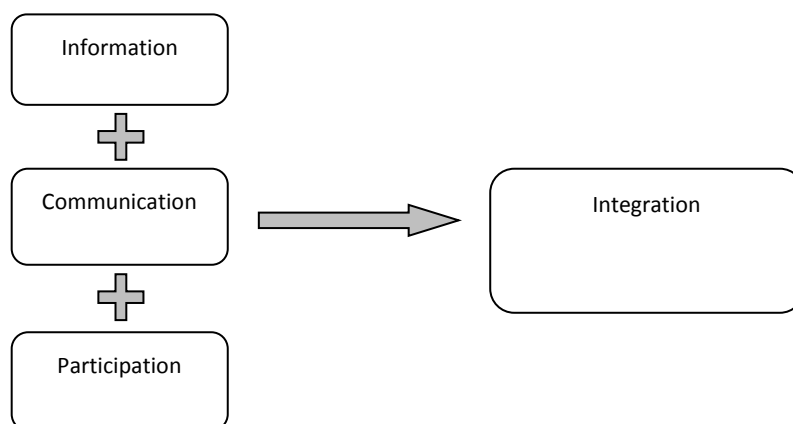
Table 17: Media Integration (Geissler, 2005b, p. 78)

	Media Type	Assimilative Media Integration	Intercultural Media Integration	Media Segregation
Production	Mainstream Media	Appropriate representation of ethnic media, sociocultural assimilation - no representatives of ethno specific characteristics (knowledge, problems, interests)	Proportional representation of ethnic media - representatives of ethno specific characteristics (knowledge, problems, interests)	Ethnic media not represented
	Ethnic Media		Via ethnic media that are at least familiar with the host society	Via ethnic media in the host or the home society
Contents	Mainstream Media	No ethno specific basis	Contributions for acceptance: - Functionality of immigration - Need for socio structural and intercultural integration Ethno dimensions of media pluralism (ethno specific knowledge, problems, interests) Negative (problems)/positive representation balanced	Distorted negative ethnic media (problematic groups)
	Ethnic Media		Foreign-language or bilingual, origin or	Foreign-language, only origin oriented

			host-country oriented	
Media Use		Only mainstream media	Mainstream and ethnic media simultaneously and complementary	Only ethnic media

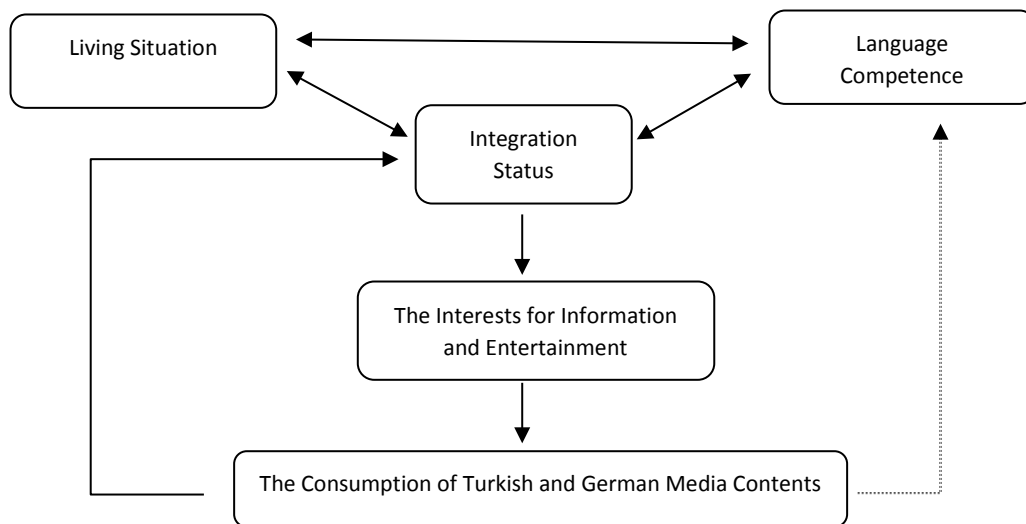
The use of ethnic media is an important element of integration by Geissler. Ethnic media, together with several similar terms, such as minority media, community media, migrant media, and diaspora media, was broadly defined by Matsaganis et al. to include media produced by and for (a) immigrant, (b) ethnic, racial, and linguistic minorities, as well as (c) indigenous groups living in various countries across the world (Matsaganis et al., 2011, p. 10). Ethnic media provides a platform for minorities. They exist in different forms, such as print media, television, radio channels, online forums, and social media groups. In this study, ethnic media in the form of both mass media and social media will be examined. In the empirical study of integration and internet use, Kissau (Kissau & Hunger, 2008a, p. 91) mentioned that the core of social integration relies on, first of all, the view of migrants about their host society (Information); second, the exchanges and contacts between local residents and migrants (Communication); and third, political and cultural engagement of migrants in social processes and institutions (Participation). This is named as the “Triavis- Modell” (Three-process Modell).

Figure 12: The Triavis Model of Integration (Kissau & Hunger, 2008a, p. 92)



When studying a Turkish group in Germany, Weiss and Trebbe (2001: 5) developed their integration and media use model by combining more factors, such as life situation and language skills. It shows the joint influence of living situation, language competence, and media consumption on the integration status.

Figure 13: Integration model of Trebbe (Weiss & Trebbe, 2001, p. 5)



Kissau's Triavis model focuses on the Internet information acquisition, communication, and application, while Weiss and Trebbe's model tries to connect integration with social life. These two models show the different disciplinary approaches; the former model is more information dominant and the later one involves a sociological background. However, these two models integrate three levels of integration from macro, meso, to micro level, but they do not discuss different integration types.

In the following, I am going to introduce two models of integration types based on Berry's framework (1997:10). For instance, by studying the Arab and Russian communities in Israel, Adoni et al. (2006: 19) developed the model of media use and integration with a focus on the media language preference:

Table 18: Media use type with a focus on the language preference (Adoni et al. 2006)

Media use type		Use of media in host language	
		High	Low
Use of media in home language	High	Dualists	Separatists
	Low	Adapters	Detached

Similarly, under the same theoretical frame, Hafez (2002) developed a model of media use and political-cultural integration of migrants by studying Turkish migrants in Germany.

Table 19: Types of media use and political-cultural integration (Bonfadelli et al., 2007; Hafez, 2002)

User Type	Media Orientation	Orientation towards culture and politics
Political Exile	Dominant use of minority media from country of origin	Cultural, political bonding to home country and mistrust in politics of new country
Cultural Exile		Cultural bonding to home country but trust in political system of new country
Diaspora		Pragmatic use of media from home country and political trust in new country
Biculturalism	Mixed use of minority media from home country and majority media from host country	Reflexive and critical stance to country and media of origin but to new country as well
Assimilation	Dominant use of majority media from host country	Positive attitudes to culture and political system of new country

Both based on Berry's theoretical framework, Adoni and Hafez developed their original theoretical model with different orientations. When studying two ethnic groups in Israel, Adoni took language preference to differentiate the integration types, while Hafez emphasized the political orientation of migrants, when studying single Turkish group in Germany. Due to the distinct political orientations and issues in Turkey and Germany, this division makes sense in Hafez's study. The different orientation of Adoni's and Hafez's studies shows that when studying multi-ethnic groups, language preference would be an optimal criterion to measure the distinguished integration types among migrants. When studying a single ethnic group, special features between an ethnic group and a host society could be created to solidify the integration model.

The differences between these two models provides important findings that when studying multi-ethnic groups, language preference could be the most efficient parameter to measure the individual media consumption and integration orientation, and at the same time, weaken the complicated cultural and political differences among them.

2.2.3 The Effects of Social Media

Different from mass media use, the study on social media use and integration is recently noticed by scholars and therefore there are few concrete theoretical models to be referred to. The use of mass media is the dominant theme in traditional media use and integration studies. Scholars extensively studied the use of various types of mass media, such as radio, television, and print media (Adoni, Caspi, & Cohen, 2006). Television was found out to be the most frequently consumed media among migrants, and at the same time the most influential media form in the integration process (Anker, Ermutlu, & Steinmann, 1995; Weiss & Trebbe, 2001; Ruhrmann, Sommer, Klietsch, & Nieze, 2007; Bonfadelli, 2007, 2009). Later on, more studies involved the use of Internet, besides the dominant mass media use research. However, at this period, Internet use referred to broad online activities, such as downloading music, chat rooms, and video games (Bonfadelli, 2009; D'Haenens & Peeters, 2005; Kissau & Hunger, 2008a; Trebbe et al., 2010).

In the early age of media use studies, scholars already noticed the importance of Internet use and the information seeking behaviors on the Internet. Early in 1999, Hwang and He incorporated computerized information sources in their study of Chinese migrants in Silicon Valley, although at that time most participants only had Internet access at their workplace, and some of them had Prodigy at home for financial information (Hwang & He, 1999). In 2000, Jeffres suggested that the future study should include the use of Internet in the purpose of maintaining contact with home countries (Jeffres, 2000). After examining the usage of print media among Chinese migrants in Australia, the authors admitted that the influence of Internet technology should have been taken into consideration (Shuang & Louw, 2007).

Recently, some scholars try to theorize the role of Internet use in migrants' life. For example, in Hepp's studies, Internet use was investigated and treated as a comprehensive concept of Email, online media, social media, online chat, and others (Hepp, Bozdog, & Suna, 2011b, p. 270). Web 2.0 enables users to generate content and interact with others, and this brings tremendous changes in life compared to the time of Web 1.0. Social media, for example, changed the ways of personal communication. I argue that when studying the media use of migrants, social media should be treated as a single variable and be given as much importance as mass media.

However, there is still a gap in the use of social media and integration of migrants. In general, the ICT (Information and Computer Technology) use of immigrants is under-researched (Borkert, Cingolati, & Premazzi, 2009). Nevertheless, studies show that migrants are aware that ICT is a must for them in order to function in the new society (Codagnone & Kluzer, 2011). It is commonly agreed that ICT is widely accepted by migrants in bounding dual or multiple lives, since it is quite cheap, or even free of charge, and provides instant communication. Nowadays, Internet is widely accessible. Internet communication is facilitated with a higher quality and most online communication channels are free of charge. Especially among college students, Internet is accessible free of charge at universities and libraries, and everyone is supposed to be acquainted with computers and the Internet. Among college students, the problem of digital equality and the digital gap can be minimized. However, the use of Internet, and specifically the use of social media in relation to integration is under-investigated. This study tries to fill this gap by examining social media use and its effects on migrants' integration in comparison to mass media use.

Social media, as an online media type, will be extensively studied in this research in comparison with mass media. Empirical studies showed that social networking sites were relevant for most migrants. Additionally, social media facilitated strong ties and bonding capital, and worked more effectively than earlier Internet applications (Komito, 2011). Social media is a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, which allows the creation and exchange of User Generated Content (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010, p. 61).

“We define social network sites as web-based services that allow individuals to (1) construct a public or semi-public profile within a bounded system, (2) articulate a list of other users with whom they share a connection, and (3) view and traverse their list of connections and those made by others within the system. The nature and nomenclature of these connections may vary from site to site (Boyd & Ellison, 2007, p. 211).”

Usually, traditional mass media have clear national boundaries, since the news is produced by a defined editorial group. However, social media brings originality with user-generated contents. This means the territorial and linguistic limitations are broken down through unlimited content-producers. In some definitions, social media is described as international and regional, for example, international social media with multilingual versions such as,

Facebook, Twitter, and Google+. Regional social media is monolingual and mostly active in some certain regions such as Weibo in China, StudiVZ in German-speaking regions, Mixi in Japan, and Nexopia in Canada. However, this classification is not absolute. Users are able to create closed regional communities on international social media as well.

Therefore, I reject to define social media simply according to its language or regional versions, since migrants have the possibility to create ethnic groups in host societies or to use the social media in home language versions to keep contact with people living in their home societies, on international social media too. Hence, I argue to distinguish social media in another way - not from the social media category but from the user-oriented direction - in the way of the linguistic use preference and the aim of use. The criteria to develop the social media use and integration model will be, the linguistic preference of home or host language or English, and the purpose of using social media to maintain home or host contacts.

In this study, media use includes the consumption of a comprehensive set of media, mainly in two types: first, mass media such as newspapers, radio, television, and their online versions respectively; second, social media is namely (1) Social Network Service (SNS), such as Facebook, Google+, LinkedIn, (2) Blog, including microblog, weblog, social blog such as Twitter, Tumblr, and Weibo, (3) Picture or Video sharing platforms, such as Youtube, Flickr, and Picasa, (4) Wikis, which allow users to freely add or modify contents such as Wikipedia and Aboutus.org, (5) Social bookmarking which enables users to share bookmarks of web documents such as Delicious, digg, and pinboard. As mentioned above, social media is a comprehensive media type that still has not shaped its whole face and hence it is difficult to label some social media into a certain category since some of platforms share the functions of the others. In general, social media can be defined as user-generated content on interactive platforms, which is based on Web 2.0. In this paper, social media is referred to a broad concept. The interactive functions of the online mass media, such as online comments, are discussed under the frame of mass media. But accessing mass media contents via social media platforms is considered to be social media use.

In many studies, social media is treated as a “home-making” tool for migrants. Many studies trace the conclusion of media as a communicative tool for migrants and discuss how it helps them to connect with their home societies or ethnic communities in their host society. Hence, social media is treated as a new communication tool, apart from telephone, email or video chat, for migrant to maintain their old identity as well as their links to their home societies.

However, in this study, social media is defined as a new media type rather than a substitute of existing communicative tools.

Social media enables individuals to communicate and thus makes the interactive communication possible. Some studies implied that social media helped migrants to create virtual communities (Komito, 2011) or a sense of virtual community (SOC) (Navarrete & Huerta, 2006). Digital media offered the chance to connect migrants communicatively in their diaspora or transnational communities (Christensen, 2011; Crush et al., 2011; Dahinden, 2010; Georgiou, 2006; Hepp, 2008). Some studies even showed that migrants were increasingly dependent on the Internet as an information source and also to keep long-distance contacts (Komito & Bates, 2011; Moerbeek & Timmermans, 2010), so migrants were therefore empowered by social media (Moerbeek & Timmermans, 2010). All in all, ICT play a central role in the maintenance of an emotional connection to the home country (Navarrete & Huerta, 2006).

Does social media help to create ethnic diaspora? Usually migrants tend to create an ethnic online-forum in the host society in order to share information, to organize meetings, to get to know new people, and to help each other. Through social media, migrants create ethnic groups. By studying the Chinese migrant group in Singapore, Chen suggested that through this virtual community, migrant groups realized to help each other and share the migrant experience in the host society (Chen & Choi, 2011). Another study on a highly educated and extremely mobile Chinese community in Singapore suggested that virtual communities formed by migrants may or may not offer distinct identity options to their members in terms of ethnic or national belonging. Virtual communities with very diverse user profiles might offer more distinct identity options for their members as a strategy in attracting and retaining members, compared to virtual communities with more homogeneous memberships (B. Chan, 2006). By studying the online community (www.MissyUSA.com) formed among female Korean immigrants in the U.S., Lee discussed the role of the digital diaspora in the new media age (Lee, 2012). From her perspective, ethnic groups on social media function more or less as an ethnic online-forum and at the same time help migrants to form their ethnic communities.

One large-scale survey shows online discussion forums, instant messaging (IM), online social networking sites (SNSs), and video sharing platforms to be the most important for digital space among youths (Leurs, 2012). Social media, as noticed, is changing our communication behavior and also the way we access information. The same applies to migrant groups;

whether social media enforces migrants to convey their belongings across multicultural societies and their attempt to integrate, is one of the key interests of this study.

2.2.4 Language-oriented Ethnic Groups

This study examines multi-ethnic groups and focuses on their language preferences. Although scholars admitted that all models and stages of integration were a two-way process, language shifts were overwhelmingly one-sided, at least in American experience (Rumbaut, 2005). Assimilation theory emphasized the significance of language. When discussing about the challenge that assimilation theory faced in the new era of immigration, Alba and Nee thought “a change in language would be unwise (Alba & Nee, 1997)”. Empirical studies also suggested that language plays an important role in media consumption when one chooses to use media in the host or home languages (Hwang & He, 1999; Madianou, 2005). In some studies, language skills were considered to be the crucial factor of integration.

“The command of its language crucially impacts the success or failure of social integration (Adoni et al., 2006, p. 24).”

Adoni et al. (2006) concluded that language played an important role mainly from three aspects. First, language promoted the direct communication between a minority and a majority society; second, it helped with the participation in the new society; third, with good language proficiency, migrants were able to perceive the meaning created by the majority media. Furthermore, they explained that “the importance of consuming the media in a particular language is derived from the assumption that language is the tool for the social construction of reality because it connects individuals to the larger cultural context and to the political and social agenda of the community (Adoni et al., 2006, p. 18).”

In the study of linguistic adaptation among children of immigrants, compared with other factors such as family conflict, solidarity, and personality, researchers found that fluent bilingualism was consistently preferable (Portes & Hao, 2002).

“Language has a particularly significant role to play in the process of individual and societal integration. It constitutes both the medium of everyday communication and a resource, in particular in the context of education and the labor market. Furthermore, languages and accents can act as symbols of belonging or foreignness and give rise to differentiation and discrimination. Inequalities in terms of access to education,

income, central institutions, societal recognition, and social contact are significantly, although not exclusively, determined by linguistic competence in the relevant national language (Esser, 2006, p. i). ”

This study takes language as the core factor in the integration process among migrants in German-speaking Switzerland. If German is already the migrants' mother language, instead of language testing language proficiency, will be used as the criteria of dividing ethnic comparison groups. As this study is a multi-ethnic groups study, students with all migration backgrounds are investigated. Regarding the migration statistics, the migration feature in Switzerland is European dominant (62%) and with specific ethnic groups, such as Germans, especially in German-speaking Switzerland. If the result of an online survey is representative for the migration facts in Switzerland, German-speaking migrants, especially Germans, will be the major migrant group represented. To be quantitatively comparable, various non-German-speaking migration backgrounds need to be categorized together. Predictably, three migrant groups will be compared: Swiss students with migration backgrounds, German-speaking students, and non-German-speaking students.

These three migrant groups are designed for the empirical data analysis and comparison; it is statistically operable and friendly. By doing so, it solved the problem of already politically structured integrated migrants- those who were born in Switzerland but have at least one parent born in another country, or those who were born in another country but naturalized as Swiss nationals. Second, those from other German-speaking countries share a similar culture to those in German-speaking Switzerland; most of them are from Germany and Austria. The most problematic group is the non-German-speaking students, since all the other nationals - no matter European, Asian, American, or African- will be considered to be one group. A definite ethnic diversity among this group exists. However, this study admits this limitation and only provides conclusion on the defined three comparing groups.

Ethnic or racial influence is one of the important aspects in the study of integration, however, there were different opinions. Some scholars argued that racial and cultural backgrounds were two significant attributes in examining across-ethnicity integration. Warner and Srole (1945, quoted from Kivisto & Faist, 2010, p. 102) offered both a prognosis of the length of time it would take to assimilate and their predicted future social location. In the case of ethnic groups, blacks would end up with “color caste” location. Asians were destined to enter a “semi-caste” location, and Latinos would move either to class or color caste location. Some claimed that language and acculturation alone cannot ensure assimilation if a group is

categorically segregated or racially classified (Rumbaut, 2005, p. 164). In the context of Negroes in American society, after three hundred years in the country, they were still considered to be a foreign culture and to have an alien tradition. Even among solo-ethnic groups, empirical studies suggested the differences should be considered. There are intra-ethnic differences in the use of new digital media in the language of the host country explained by underlying demographic and socio-economic factors: place of birth, age, and educational level (Codagnone & Kluzer, 2011). But after studying 13 white ethnic groups mainly from East Europe in the U.S., Jeffres (2000) suggested that researches should “cut racial lines” to examine ethnic groups.

Language-oriented comparison of media use and integration among ethnic groups is the core of this study. Correspondently, the theoretical framework will be built up regarding the mother language. As mentioned above, ethnic diversity is admitted when taking various ethnic groups as a whole non-German-speaking student group. But as existing studies show, it is inevitable to neglect differences among groups in standardized quantitative studies. Significant differences were found out even between migrants who shared the same or a very similar culture of origin and ethnic backgrounds (Erk & Neuwöhner, 2011). In this sense, ethnic backgrounds fail to describe the differences among migrants as well. Most importantly, this study does not try to generalize the feature of non-German-speaking students as a whole, or the other migrant groups as well. On the contrary, it is admitted that ethnic/national diversity is overlooked in the empirical analysis mainly due to the statistical operation, so therefore the conclusion will only be drawn on the role of language in media use and integration. In addition, the differences among one group will be statistically tested.

2.2.5 Conclusion: Theoretical Frameworks and Breakthroughs

In this study, integration is defined as the positive interaction with the dominant society individually or as a group, while one may still keep his or her cultural identity and tradition. This implies that different from assimilation, integration does not involve the abandonment of one's cultural identities and traditions. But on the other hand, it entails the deep involvement, participation, and contacts with the dominant society. In this sense, integrated migrants usually hold a cultural pluralism and hybrid identity; they can have dual or multiple lives.

Integration is a dynamic process. It is neither a linear nor a cyclical course. This study employs a standardized online survey and examines the media use and integration at a point

of time (the online survey ran from the 16th April to the 30th June, 2013). Therefore, the extent of integration at this point will be measured with seven indicators and categorized into certain types. Although the survey is conducted at one defined time, I do not deny the dynamic nature of integration. The survey is trying to evaluate the extent of integration rather than describe the changing trajectory of it.

Whether media use will result in certain integration types or vice versa is a discussion in academia. This study employs the *Media Effect* approach and utilizes a one-time survey and tries to represent the media use behavior and the integration at one point in time. Along the integration process of each migrant, integration and media use behavior are changing in a dynamic environment and influencing each other, and are also being influenced by other factors, so at the point of this study they are static and therefore can be categorized. This study tries to capture the stationary picture of media use and integration at a certain time point and evaluate them together with the demographic information.

As already mentioned in the text, this study evaluates social media use in comparison with mass media use. Therefore, this brings the theoretical breakthrough question: if the existing theoretical structures are still valid by adding social media as a new media type. Since social media is introduced and will be examined extensively in its different forms, different from most existing literature, mass media will not be presented in its individual shapes, such as television, radio, newspaper, and magazine. But instead, mass media will be examined as a whole and distinguished by its origins: whether from a home, a host, or an international society or ethnic communities in a host society.

At last, the comparisons will be made among three comparing groups, Swiss students with migration backgrounds, German-speaking students, and non-German-speaking students. This will largely test the role of language in the integration process, especially in the choice of media and the interaction with the dominant society. However, this can arouse the concern of neglecting ethnic differences. Statistically, regarding the migration statistics, this taxonomy will be the most operable way of analyzing since these three groups will be close to quantitatively equal. Furthermore, differences do exist; non-German-speaking students will be divided into smaller sub groups according to nation, ethnicity, geography, or language. It does not make sense to compare each ethnic group, since many ethnic groups will be quantitatively insignificant. All in all, this study notices that it can be controversial and therefore makes the results and conclusions open to vulnerabilities. As it is admitted above, it is possible that ethnic/national diversity is overlooked in the empirical analysis, mainly due to

the statistical analysis and the conclusion which will only be drawn from the role of language in media use and integration.

3. Status Quo of Media Use and Integration of Migrants

In the following part, I will review the relevant literature on media use and integration of migrants in the scope of international, European (German and other European), and Swiss societies. The priority will be given to empirical studies. Publications and studies are selected according to the following standards: the relevance with the media use and integration studies with a focus on empirical studies, and the most up-to-date and influential studies. As mentioned in the first section, migration tradition varies largely from country to country. Therefore, migration features, media use behaviors, and the theories based on regional studies show their local characteristics. An “international in relation to regional” perspective can help to understand the global development of media use and integration studies. In the part of Swiss studies, the reviewed literature is not strictly limited to media use and integration, for two reasons. Firstly, there is limited research on media use and integration in Switzerland, and second, studies on migration issues from other disciplines will help to extend the knowledge of migration facts, theories, and features in Switzerland and will therefore build up a more intensive background of the migration issue in Switzerland.

3.1 International Studies

A 16-year panel study, which covered 13 different white ethnic groups in a Midwestern metropolitan area in the U.S., was conducted between 1976 and 1992. Surveys were collected every four years, in 1976, 1980, 1984, 1988, and 1992. The ethnic groups consisted of Czech, Greek, Hungarian, Irish, Italian, Lebanese, Lithuanian, Polish, Romanian, Slovak, Slovene, and Ukrainian. In 1976, 768 people were surveyed, and in the last survey there were 157 participants. Regression analysis confirmed that ethnic media use led to a stronger ethnic identification over time. This indicated that ethnic media could help to sustain ethnic identity in a multicultural context, whereas mainstream media use was negatively related (Jeffres, 2000). However, the effects in the reverse direction (from ethnic identity to ethnic media use) were not clear and were reduced by the impact of social class.

Another longitudinal study examined acculturative stressors in Taiwanese international students over a two-year period in the U.S., using the Migration–Acculturation Stressors

Scale (Ying, 2005). Factor Analysis identified five stressor domains, such as Homesickness, Cultural Difference, Social Isolation, Academics, and Unfamiliar Climate. Academic challenges turned out to be the greatest difficulty in the acculturation process. The stressors appeared most intense early on, and declined significantly either from the fall to spring semesters in the first academic year (Academics and Unfamiliar Climate) or from the spring of the first academic year to the fall of the second academic year (Homesickness, Cultural Difference, and Social Isolation).

Applying uses and gratifications approaches, Hwang and He examined mass media consumption and acculturation among Chinese immigrants in the U.S. (Hwang & He, 1999). Participant observation of ten first-generation Chinese immigrant families in Silicon Valley was conducted in 1993. Each family was observed for seven consecutive days in a full week, and extensive interviews were carried out. In total, 38 people from Taiwan and one person from China were observed, and 33 of them were interviewed. Media uses were defined as the use of newspapers, magazines, radio, television, cable television, VCR (video cassette recorders), and computerized information sources. The study suggested that there was a mixed relationship between media use and acculturation level. Although, those who used more English media were generally better acculturated than those who used exclusively Chinese media; the study found that the content-orientation made the difference. That is to say, more information-oriented media users were moderately acculturated with the American culture, while those with a low acculturation level exposed themselves only to entertainment-oriented programs. Therefore, the study concluded that the host media consumption did not automatically translate into a higher acculturation. On the other hand, some interviewees who consumed a lot of Chinese media were fairly acculturated. All in all, the population in the study was found to be fairly lowly motivated to acculturate into American society, and they consequently moderately acculturated as a group. Social demographic factors did not strongly related to an acculturation level, such as gender, family type, neighborhood, and income. However, both the age when they arrived to the U.S. and the working environment appeared to be important for acculturation.

One study on Chinese student in the U.S. discussed the relations among acculturation need, media usage motives, and the frequency of using U.S.-based television and Internet content (Yang, Wu, Zhu, & Brian, 2004a). Through a cross-sectional survey with a sample of 84 Chinese students registered at Midwest University in the U.S., the researchers proved their

hypotheses that when the acculturation need was strong, both the acculturative motive for watching television and using the Internet appeared to be strong. The higher the Chinese students' acculturation motives were, the more frequently students used the U.S.-based Internet sites.

In the book about Russian and Arab immigrants in Israeli society, Adoni (Adoni et al., 2006) examined the media usage patterns in relation to social integration. For the theoretical considerations, they noted three main components in the framework of analysis. First, various patterns of communication should be considered. Second, ethnic media can offer the possibility for migrants to relate to their cultural values and traditional heritage. Third, the majority of society must provide a welcome structure, such as citizenship, equal chances in socioeconomic conditions, and an open environment created by majority media. Social integration was considered to be a dependent variable. They emphasized that if the above conditions could apply, social integration could be measured on the micro level. When measuring the relationship between social integration and media use, the duration of residence in the absorbing society and the language proficiency were considered to be the two most crucial parameters.

One study focused on the relationship among print media use, ethnic identity, intergroup contacts, and acculturation orientations among Chinese migrants in Australia. In total, 265 Chinese living in Brisbane participated in the study. The study provided evidence that generally, exposure to print media did not have a significant impact on ethnic identity. Nevertheless, ethnic media consumption had a negative relation with assimilation, but was positively related to separation. Additionally, intergroup contact was beneficial to both ethnic cultural maintenance and host culture adaption (Shuang & Louw, 2007).

To examine the roles of different media, those in the host language, those in the mother tongue, and those in other languages, one study employed a semi-structured, in-depth interview with immigrant children and adolescents together with their parents from the former Soviet Union in Israel (Elias & Lemish, 2008). In the end, 30 families were interviewed in 2004, including 19 girls and 19 boys from age six to 18, and 29 mothers and 20 fathers. The study suggested that mass media plays a very central role in the life of immigrant families, where it functions as an axis in the struggle between assimilation and cultural preservation. In particular, media in the host language assisted immigrant children in

several ways to facilitate the social integration as well as the local youth culture. In this respect, media functioned as an identity maker. On the other side, family consolidation was the major reason to use media in the mother language (Russian) rather than cultural transmission. Moreover, television, in either language, was the primary medium for immigrant families and simultaneously encouraged culture conflicts between children and their parents. At last, this study indicated that media in Russian was central in “inwards” integration- preserving internal unity. On the other hand, host-language media was vital in “outwards” integration- integration into the host society. The study suggested that there were conflicts between media in home and the host language in regard of inwards and outwards integration. Media with a “global” nature was used as a compromise, such as Hollywood films and international sport events.

3.2 Studies on Migrants in Europe

After reviewing 149 publications on the related topics, Borket et al. provided an overview of research of the ICT use of immigrants and ethnic minorities in the EU. In their report, they suggested that the European research on ICT and migrations is an under-researched field (Borkert et al., 2009). According to this report, there are mainly three neglected aspects. First, the impact of ICT was only studied in niche groups, such as intellectual elites and highly qualified migrant. Second, lack of in-depth analysis led to theoretical shortcomings. Third, interdisciplinary studies and cooperation were not explored. This study further pointed out that there was a general trend that mostly junior and female researchers were engaged in this new area of migration studies.

In the same year, another overview study of migrants and media was published based on the review of 170 related publications (Ruhrmann, Schulz, & Eckardt, 2009). For the time between 2003 and 2009, this study used keyword filtering in 13 online databases in German and English to search the publications of media and migrants, which received 170 results. After selecting the most important and relevant literature, it categorized 64 articles in four classifications: general theoretical researches of migration and media (10), media representations of migration (19), media use (22), and media reception and effect (13). This study, which was published in German, focused more on German publications (60%) than on English publications (40%). Unlike the first study mentioned above, this overview mainly

aimed at categorizing all of the studies according to their research questions and methodologies, and only then providing few comments or criticisms.

It is surprising to find out that although these two overview reports related quite similar topics of migrants and media, there were few in common among the publications they referred to, and the critics over the status quo of researchers were widely divergent. One possible reason to explain this is that these two reviews examined literature through different aspects and approaches. But another explanation can exist that there was a real barrier between the studies focusing on traditional media and online media. This barrier also creates difficulties for the following literature view. How to categorize all of the publications relating with this topic: by countries, by research questions, by methodologies, or by scholars?

There were many relevant studies from 2000 to 2011 which were carried out in Germany, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom. However, with the highest ratio of migrants per resident background in Europe, the study on migrant issue in Switzerland requires more attention. Although the following review might not be complete, since only German and English publications were reviewed and only important studies were mentioned, the internationally published articles can be seen as an indicator for the importance of a growing research field.

In the following, studies will be reviewed under the name of principle scholars.

3.2.1 Studies on Migrants in Germany

Media use and integration of Turkish and Islam minorities is a frequent research topic in Germany. German studies are also frequently quoted in publications on Swiss migration issues. The studies in Germany will be reviewed intensively.

Joachim Trebbe

One study of Trebbe's investigated the young Turks with dual identity in Germany by describing and identifying their different types of integration, together with their demographic profiles and media use behaviors. The telephone survey "Attitudes and Media Use of Young Turks in NRW (North Rhine-Westphalia)" was carried out in 2006 and 503 interviews were completed. By causal analysis, it was found that acculturation strategies had

significant impacts, which were positive for the integration and assimilation strategies, but negative for the separation and isolation strategies. Furthermore, it implied that either a positive or negative strategy did not predict the identity maintaining the origin (Trebbe, 2007, 2009). The use of Turkish media, especially of television media, runs through all of the identified types of integration. Trebbe admitted that Internet use was the number one access when an immigrant required information in both German and Turkish languages (Trebbe, 2009, p. 234).

In 2000, a face-to-face survey interviewed 1,842 Turks living in Germany above 14 years old. Only 15% of the whole survey required Turkish translation and the rest was done in German. Integration indicators were defined as language proficiency, nationality, the length of stay in Germany, and social and political orientation. This study found that more than 50% of interviewed Turks were well or very well integrated in Germany. 24% of interviewees were categorized as relatively less integrated mainly because of their negative attitude against the social and political system in Germany. Furthermore, this study confirmed that age had a strong influence in the integration processes; young Turks were generally better integrated in Germany than older Turks. It also indicated that active, working participation and better education were important features of better-integrated groups. Television was considered to be the most common media access in the integration process (Weiss & Trebbe, 2001).

Georg Ruhrman

In a study of media reception in Germany, Ruhrmann (Ruhrmann et al., 2007) analyzed 285 television reports on migrants and conducted an audience survey and reception experiment on 160 students, 80 from Germany and 80 foreign students from 27 different countries. Television was noted by both German and foreign students as the most frequent information source. One interesting finding from this study was that foreigners evaluated migration issues in media more negatively than their German counterparts. Information that related with one's personal experience was the most remembered television news by interviewees. For instance, more foreigners than Germans remembered the reports on political sanctions and prohibitions on foreigners.

Erk Simon

Since 2007, three German television channels ARD, ZDF and WDR initiated two studies on media use and integration of ethnic groups in Germany, namely in 2007 and in 2011 respectively. Erk Simon, the researcher at WDR, was the principle author of the publications.

Between January and March of 2011, a CATI-based telephone survey interviewed 3,302 people above 14 years old with migration backgrounds in Germany, namely from six countries or regions: Russia, Turkey, Poland, Serbia/Montenegro/Croatia/Bosnia Herzegovina, Italy, and Greece. The study aimed at answering many research questions, such as: What kind of media do migrants use in Germany? How do migrants use German media and media from their home country? What is the trend of young migrants? People with migration backgrounds were defined as people who were born in Germany with at least one foreign-born parent. Altogether, 76% of interviews were done in German and the other 24% in their corresponding mother tongues. 34% of interviews with people over 50 years old were conducted in their mother tongues, which was the highest rate, in comparison to only 9% of people between 14 to 29 years old who had interviews conducted in their mother tongues (Erk & Neuwöhner, 2011). In general, 80% of interviewees evaluated their understanding of the German language as “good”. Among them Turkish and Italian migrants had the best German proficiency. However, young Turkish migrants felt themselves less comfortable in Germany and felt as though they were more often discriminated against.

German language proficiency, daily language use with family and at work, social contacts, and political interests were defined as integration indicators. The results showed that a majority of migrants used German media, especially television, radio, Internet, and newspaper. This suggested that most migrants no longer lived in parallel societies between home society and host society. Furthermore, it concluded that social demographic factors, such as age, education, gender, birthplace, and German language proficiency were the determining factors for the language choice of media. For example, the use of Turkish media was typical in the migrant group who were female, above 50 years old, without educational background in Germany, not born in Germany, and with little German language proficiency. It pointed out that demographic factors such as age, birthplace, and German language proficiency were more important than ethnic backgrounds when making choices on media languages. However, different from other studies, this study suggested that there was only a weak linkage between integration and German media consumption.

The study in 2011 was a continuous study after the study under the same topic in 2007 (Erk, 2007). However, it just compared the results from the same questions to these two studies, for instance, the increase and decrease of media consumption. It was not a longitudinal study nor were theoretical or empirical revaluations involved. Different from most studies in Germany, it examined media use across ethnic groups. Based on that, it came to an important conclusion that there were differences among one ethnic group and also that social demographics were more important than ethnic backgrounds. It suggested that there was a weak linkage between media use and integration. Nevertheless, this study still focused on mass media: television, radio, and newspaper. Internet use was limited to website choice and language preferences. Different types of Internet use, social media use, nor personal communication were involved.

Between the quantitative studies in 2007 and 2011, WDR published one article on the role of mass media in the integration process (Zambonini & Simon, 2008). It discussed the media contents about migration in the relation to the migrants' media use behaviors from the 2007 study. In the end, it proposed integration programs for television and the presence of migrants in television programs.

Kathrin Kissau

In Kissau's study on migrants, Internet is used to analyze social networks, identity construction, and the local dimension of the everyday life of migrants. She assumed that the Internet was central to the dimensions of migrants' lives abroad. Her research interests mainly focused on three interactions: the interaction of migrants within an online-community and within one country, the interaction with residents and organizations in the home and host countries, and the interaction and integration in an international public sphere.

“Internet is a meeting point of private and public, personal or communal shows and reflects different levels of migrant interaction (Kissau & Hunger, 2008b, p. 3).”

Kissau and Hunger applied a couple of research methods, which include a content analysis of websites, website link structure analysis via hyperlink analysis program, and a survey of the users and administrators of the websites. In the end, they chose 20 websites for content analysis and surveying, 95 Turkish URLs and 76 Russian URLs for co-link analysis, and in the end received 226 survey responses, 136 from the former Soviet Union and 90 with

Turkish background. The study found that more than half of the Russian websites concentrated on transnational topics; 70% of Russian websites were in Russian, 24% were multilingual, and 20% were exclusively in German. They were well connected with other Russian websites but hardly with German ones. However, the Turkish migrant websites showed another face; nearly half of the Turkish websites had German political references and their main themes were “migration and integration”. Most of them were in German and more than 40% of them were exclusively in German. They were primarily linked with German-language websites, particularly with German media pages and German national institutions. These differences were also verified in the survey. The majority of Russian users had more interest in the politics in their home countries while the Turks had more interests in German politics than in Turkish politics. Accordingly, Turkish users were more politically engaged online than Russians. In real life, the Turks had more contacts with Germans without migration backgrounds than Russians.

According to the findings, Kissau and Hunger (2008) defined Russian migrants as a transnational online community, who were politically involved both in home and in their host societies. Turkish migrants were living in ethnic online public spheres whose political interests were on the host country. Additionally, Kurdish migrants were described as virtual/online diaspora since most of their online activities were designed to enhance their diaspora identity and to dominantly express their wish to return to Kurdish areas.

Different research methods were combined to analyze website contents, external and mutual links, and media users. Internet was treated as a way of living. Comparisons were made among ethnic groups and different integration types were discovered respectively. However, it illustrated the differences among ethnic groups and their integration types, but failed to explain why and what resulted in these types. It could be more interesting to explain the different integration types in relation to culture backgrounds, migration history, and political factors.

Kai Hafez

Followed after the quantitative study by Weiss and Trebbe in 2001, Hafez started his qualitative study between June of 2001 and March of 2002. He carried out 93 intensive interviews with groups and individuals in Turkish families in Hamburg (Hafez, 2002). This study defined six groups according to media use behaviors. There were cultural- exile,

political-exile, diaspora, bi-culture, trans-culture, and assimilation users. Cultural-exile referred to the users who only consumed Turkish media but had bigger trust in German political and economic system than those in Turkey. Political-exile meant those who had negative impressions towards Germany with racial sentiments. Diaspora- users pointed at the ones who only used Turkish media but were well integrated societally. Bi-culture users consumed German media as much as Turkish media. Assimilation types were the ones who only used German media.

Furthermore, there were several interesting findings in this study (Hafez, 2002). First, entertainment television programs from Turkey via satellite were used extensively, while television channels with strong political orientation were not in this case. Second, the Turkish media users were critical. The lack of objectivity and professionalism and the strong nationalism of Turkish media were the three major points criticized by their users. Third, media use orientation heavily depended on age. Usually, younger generations consumed much more German media than their parents. Many of them did not use Turkish media any longer, but only German media mainly for entertainment programs. Therefore, they became trapped into a “political information hole” of both their home and host societies. Fourth, the longer the German language acquisition lasted, the more likely it was that migrants kept a habit of using Turkish-language oriented media. Young migrants usually spoke and read German better than their parents, since they grew up bilingually, but their language competence in Turkish normally remained only to conversational level. Many young people can no longer understand Turkish political news, or even if they can, only very superficial Turkish political news. Fifth, the idea of a German-Turkish television channel was very welcomed among migrants with different media use behaviors. It was also criticized that the general image of Germany in Turkish media was too positive and that the Turkish image in German media was just the opposite. According to Turkish migrants’ opinion, German media was partly responsible for the Xenophobia across Germany.

Andreas Hepp

Hepp is another German scholar in media research from the University of Bremen, with the approach of cultural studies (Hepp et al., 2009; Hepp, Bozdag, & Suna, 2011a; Hepp & Düvel, 2009; Hepp, 2008). Hepp (Hepp et al., 2009) challenged the empirical perspective of media use and integration researches by questioning. First, migration could not be understood

as a linear process from home country to host country and afterwards categorized into several types, such as acculturation or assimilation. Second, migration itself was highly diverse. Migrants lived with different identities and cultural affiliations together with “traditional” mass media - television, film, newspaper, radio, etc., and “new” digital media – online media, social media, smartphone, etc. His opinion stands for the point of view of the “Diaspora” concept, which suggests that there is no longer a “home country” identity of migrants in host societies, but rather a cultural identity in the sense of “deterritorialization”.

He questions how cultural identities of migrants transfer with their communicative networking in the process of media acquisition. The media acquisition was considered to be an active process of media users and media contents. By applying a qualitative network analysis, including qualitative interviews, freehand network maps, media diaries, material documentation of bookmarked links, and Internet usage places, Hepp (Hepp, 2008) tried to get an insight into the “connectivity practices” of digital media uses within different diasporas, namely Moroccan, Russian, and Turkish ethnic groups in Germany.

Some of his results were presented visually. For example, interviewees were asked to draw freehand maps on plain paper to describe their networks in connection with digital media and non-digital media. After he analyzed the interview data, Hepp made three findings. First, communication activities or “connectivity practices”, in his explanation, were group and context focused and also independent from media types. This meant that no single medium had individual effects on migrant mobility. Second, the mobile phone played an important role in migrant life in connecting the networks within diaspora. Moreover, every interviewee in his interview expressed the “Pressure” to get a mobile phone in order to be communicatively connected. Last, digital media intensified the segmentation of pre-existing cultural parts, such as family, friends, and other networks. In the end, he appealed to increase the relevance of digital media in media use research, especially on young migrants, as well as to notice the media use in different communication contexts, especially for transnational networks.

Hepp (Hepp et al., 2011b, p. 244) developed three identity types of migrants. In this model, the dimensions of cultural identity are in relation to communicative connectivity. From origin to world orientation, the identity is getting wider while the communicative connectivity is becoming broader.

Figure 14: Media Appropriation Types of Cultural Identity and Communicative Connectivity
Adapted from Hepp et al. (2011b, p. 244)

	Cultural identity	Communicative Connectivity
Origin-oriented	Belonging to the ethnic group	“Origin networking” Living place + home society + ethnic diaspora
Ethnic-oriented	Between ethnic origin and host society	“Bi-cultural networking” Living place + home society + ethnic diaspora + host society
World-oriented	European or global belonging	“Transcultural networking” Living place + home society + ethnic diaspora + host society + Europe/world

In this study, Hepp (Hepp et al., 2009) suggested that the shape of the communicative network was articulated together with the respective cultural affiliation, such as “home network”, “bi-cultural network”, and “cross-cultural network”. By doing this, he challenged the notion of “integration”, which was not a goal, but on the contrary, was the potential that existed in the communicative network of migrants by means of media consumption.

The most important contribution of Hepp’s research is that he saw the changes brought by digital media and attempted to link media use with everyday life (Hepp & Düvel, 2009) where he studied media use in the way of living. While other *Media Effect* oriented research still treated media use as an objective behavior, he saw media involving every part of life and described the meaning of media consumption and media contents. In addition, he saw the changes brought by digital media and put a bigger emphasis on it than other scholars investigating digital media. He noted that digital media provided migrants the possibilities to be connected communicatively when “on the move”. Accordingly, he applied new methodology to interpret this close relationship between digital media and everyday life, such as the free hand map. In the end, he visualized the personal networks in the respect of digital media use.

In the previous part, I only reviewed the most important, recent, and relevant literature on media use and migrants in Germany. I ordered the literature review according to scholars who have done continuous and influential studies in the field of media use and integration of

migrants. I quoted one or two of their most recent and important studies to explain their theoretical frameworks, research questions, methods, and findings to show their main contributions in this field rather than a list of all their publications with related topics. However, I do not deny that there is other meaningful research (Halm, 2006; Hammeran, Baspinar, & Simon, 2007; Wieler, 2007).

Quantitative approach is dominant in media and integration studies in Germany. Most scholars conduct quantitative studies on migrants, such as Trebbe, Kissau, and Simon. Hepp, a cultural studies scholar, studies migration issue in Germany for years by applying qualitative methods. Other scholars, such as Ruhrman and Hafez contributed in media use and integration studies but currently have few updated researches in this field. Most German studies are aimed at homo-ethnic groups and the biggest migrant group in Germany, the Turks. Studies addressing ethnic differences or across ethnic groups are rare.

3.2.2 Studies on Migrants in Other European Countries

In the following, I will name some leading scholars from selected European countries and summarize their research questions and results. In some European countries, such as the UK and Sweden, a cultural studies approach is the main trend. Researchers try to interpret the meaning of media use in relation with identity transformation and transnationalism. They emphasize the differences among individuals and examine media use in a broad setting. Field studies, focus groups, and in-depth interviews are the most common methods of this approach, but a quantitative approach is still welcomed by other scholars. With interviews and online surveys, scholars try to find the linkage between certain media use behaviors and integration types, and also to name the specific influential factors. No matter which approach, traditional mass media was the most studied media type. But most recently, social media received more and more attention and was treated as the main media type in some studies.

Mirca Madianou, UK

Madianou rejected the media-centric approach and used the discursive approach instead to raise the question “what impact do the media have on the ways of people talking about themselves and the nation.” In her study of Turkish diaspora in Greece (Madianou, 2005), she took Barth’s theory of ethnic groups and boundaries and employed anthropological research methods. According to this theory, identities are understood as relations rather than objects.

Media was thus understood as a process, taking into account the point of contacts between texts and audiences. During October of 1998 and May of 2001, she carried out 21 in-depth interviews and used participant observation among Turkish speakers living in Athens. Again, in her study, she emphasized the paramount importance of language in media use. Consequently, the language-based media choice could be interpreted as an indicator of the wish to participate in society.

Myria Georgiou, UK

After analyzing three types of websites, a website for refugees and asylum seekers, Kurdish websites, and a transnational center website, Georgiou concluded that online communication functioned for migrant communities both online- and off-line in life and in practice. Internet was a new way for direct communication (Georgiou, 2006). In a study of Cypriot Community Centre in north London, Georgiou applied ethnographical methods aiming at the media consumption in relation to public space. She emphasized that ethnic media had a major role for Greek Cypriot (Georgiou, 2001).

One study across Europe was carried out in the summer of 2009, with 18 focus groups of Arab speakers in London, Madrid, and Nicosia, and six focus groups in each city. The focus groups were designed as two sets of single-gendered groups with people from age 18 to 65 (Georgiou, 2013). In this study, she discovered several strategic positions of migrants in host societies and named the two most occurring ones: “Strategic nostalgia” and “Banal nomadism”. “Strategic nostalgia” was outside territoriality and indicated a sense of belonging beyond spatial and temporal boundaries. “Banal nomadism” promoted a new territoriality, which was across political and temporal boundaries, and also associated with liberal democratic politics. Her findings reflected a possibility for new forms of citizenship.

Miyase Christensen, Sweden

Christensen’s study involved semi-structured and open-ended interviews with 18 Turkish and Kurdish migrants with a Muslim background (ten women and eight men) aged between 23 and 44 (Christensen, 2012). In addition, the study also incorporated ethnographic methods such as site visits and observations. The study provided evidence that Turkish groups were

world-oriented with a conscious openness. Another finding was that although women juggled between individual choices and tradition, their communicative practices showed clear cosmopolitan features.

Leen D'Haenens, the Netherlands, Belgium

In a study of Turkish diaspora in Belgium, it was claimed that media use was determined by cultural and social demographic features (Gezduci & D'Haenens, 2007). Language proficiency was considered to be the determining factor for both home and host media uses. More specifically, it pointed out that religion, ethnic-cultural position, and command of the home language were the strongest determinants for the media consumption of news in the home language, while the media consumption of news in the host language was strongly determined by the command of the host language, length of residence, and educational level. This conclusion was based on a quantitative survey of four hundred migrants with Turkish backgrounds between 18 and 60 in Belgium.

D'Haenens and Peeters (D'Haenens & Peeters, 2005) applied face-to-face interview as research method to investigate how migrants use media to maintain their contacts with the homeland and to participate in the host country. Interviews were conducted with migrants from age 13 and older by interviewers with the same ethnic background. In the end, 408 Turks, 366 Moroccans, 388 Surinamese, 403 Antilleans, and 348 Chinese were interviewed, who were, at that time, the five biggest migrant groups in the Netherlands.

In the survey, integration was defined by six dimensions: command and use of the Dutch language, understanding of Dutch society, endorsement of the norms of Dutch society, social contacts with native Dutch people, Dutch identity, and motivation with respect to integration. Media use covered radio, television, print media, and Internet use. Internet use was named in a broad sense, which included random surfing, retrieving information, Email, chatting, news groups, downloading mp3 and other files, and ordering goods. The study found that among all migrant groups, watching television had a negative correlation with integration. Among Turks and Moroccans, young people were better integrated than the older people, however this did not apply to Surinamese and Antillean groups. It emphasized that integration did not imply a conflict between home and host cultures; on the contrary, it created a bridge. Well-

integrated migrants did use more Dutch media, but on the other hand, they consumed more media overall. Therefore, the integration of older generations should not be a concern.

D'Haenens and Peeters gave the theoretical contributions in the field of integration and media use. They formulated the integration models based on their empirical studies. Integration is a deeper involvement into the other culture and creates no break with the original culture (D'Haenens & Peeters, 2005, p. 227). They compared five ethnic groups in the Netherlands, but draw few conclusions on ethnic differences. They noticed the use of Internet and listed it as a single catalog, but Internet use was only referred to as general online activities and with few communication perspectives.

Lee Komito, Ireland

The impact of social media on migrants is the core research in Komito's study. In his study on social media use of migrants, Komito described migrants as "virtual" migrants and their communities as "virtual ghetto" (Komito & Bates, 2009; Komito, 2011). "Social media are changing the character of international migration, with an emphasis on mobility rather than assimilation (Komito & Bates, 2009). " Furthermore, he pointed out that social media may encourage continual movement of migrants from one society to another (Komito, 2011).

Komito and Bates studied the social media use of migrants and its impact on their integration. Using semi-structured interviews, Komito and Bates (2009) interviewed 26 Polish national residents in Dublin, in 2008. They found out that by using social networking technologies, migrants were becoming "media rich" in creating social groups instead of face-to-face activities, and also in binding friends and relatives from Poland, Ireland, and throughout the world. However, they indicated that networks tended to minimized integration into Irish society, because via social networks, Polish nationals interacted only with other Polish people.

In order to obtain longitudinal data, Komito interviewed 65 Filipino and Polish nationals in Ireland three times over two years, in order to record the changes in information seeking, communication behaviors, and technology usages (Komito, 2011). The interview was designed to contain two-thirds closed questions and one-third open-ended questions with a total of 66 questions and 163 variables. Personal communication tools were measured, such as mobile phone, Skype, landline, SMS, face-to-face, VOIP other than Skype, social networking sites, and Email. First, the study found out that social networking sites were

relevant for most migrants. Second, it showed that social media facilitated strong ties and bonding capital, and worked more effectively than earlier Internet applications. Third, social media supported virtual communities and enabled a shared experience with friends and relations living outside Ireland.

3.2 Studies on Migrants in Switzerland

3.3.1 Swiss Studies on Migrants in Various Disciplines

Migration issue is a frequent topic in mass media and a politically sensitive issue in Switzerland. Research on this topic was carried out in various fields, such as History, Political Science, Economics, Cultural Studies, Sociology, and Communication Science. However, in each field, it failed to discuss the migration issue extensively, especially in Communication Science. Among the existing studies on the topic of media use and integration, most studies applied content analysis and focused on the media productions towards the migration issue. However, media-effects studies and audience studies, especially the study on audience with migration backgrounds, are somehow neglected. Almost all of these studies were completed at Swiss universities, and there was a lack of international attention. In the following, I will review the studies related to the migration topic in Switzerland that have various approaches and research interests, and try to create a complete picture of migration studies in Switzerland, and also to build up an interdisciplinary dialogue.

Migration History: Madelyn Holmes, Patrick Richard Ireland, Etienne Piguet, Dominique Marie Gross, Laurent Goetschel, Magdalena Bernath, and Daniel Schwarz

There was a book about foreign workers in Switzerland before the First World War (Holmes, 1988), that discussed the Swiss migration history as an economic issue by focusing on the foreign workers in engineering industry during the early 1900's and in the 1970's. Years later, an American scholar compared the immigrant policies between France and Switzerland before 1992 (Ireland, 1994). In both societies, foreign migrants played an important role. Based on four case studies in two French cities: La Courneuve and Roubaix, and in two Swiss cities: Schlieren and La Chaux-de-Fonds, he tried to prove that immigration participation in politics was determined by "institutional channeling" not only at a national level, but also at a local level. This trial of international comparison of immigrant policies in

Switzerland to a neighboring country provided us factual details of movements at local level. However, it neglected other factors, such as the influence of historical factors, any active and independent initiatives, and strategies developed by the immigrant workers themselves (Majumdar, 1996). First published in German in 2002 and translated into English three years later, *Swiss Foreign Policy* discussed foreign policy from a decision-making level as well as at the global influence level (Goetschel, Bernath, & Schwarz, 2004). Piguet is a well-known historian in Swiss migration history. In his book (2006) *Immigration State Switzerland: Five Decades of Half-open Borders*, he divided the immigrant history of Switzerland after the Second World War into five phases. His interpretation of Swiss migration history was quoted by many scholars as well as in the first section of this dissertation. One recent work covered immigration policies and foreign population flows in Switzerland from 1970 to 2002 (Gross, 2006). This paper mainly displayed the features of immigration in Switzerland since the 1970's, the conflicts between the control of foreign quotas and the growth of foreign resident population, and the shift after "The Free Movement of Persons" agreement with the EU/EFTA.

Political Discourse: Alexandre Afonso and George Sheldon

Immigration policy and immigration flow are the two topics most often discussed in Political Science. For example, the immigration policies and unemployment (Afonso, 2005), the immigration policy changes based on economic developments and immigration controls (Afonso, 2007), and the political agenda of anti-immigrant campaigns by the largest right-wing party SVP in Switzerland (Afonso, 2013). Despite the above literature, studies on Swiss immigration policy usually begin with historic views and try to give policy suggestions. Sheldon (Sheldon, 2001) criticized the current quota-based immigration policy, stating that it only controlled the number of immigrants but not the number of new immigrants, which might obey the original intention of immigration control and cause more immigrants to come to Switzerland.

Economics: Thomas Liebig and his colleagues, and Pierre Kohler

Thomas Liebig from the University of St. Gallen, together with other scholars, published studies on migration issue in Switzerland from the perspective of Labor Economics and

Labor Law. One article was about the influence of taxes on migration. On the basis of micro-data from the first three waves of a newly established Swiss Household Panel, Liebig et al. found that migration decisions were strongly influenced by accommodation-related factors that point to important housing-market effects (Liebig, 2005). The second article was about the integration of immigrants and their children at labor markets, which was a working paper of OECD aimed at providing policy suggestions. This 117-page paper provided an overview of integration policy in Switzerland in comparison to other OECD countries and the Swiss labor market for foreigners. It indicated that in many aspects the Swiss integration policies lag behind those in other OECD countries. The weak aspects mainly lay in three fields. Anti-discrimination measures were absent from either public debate or employers, humanitarian migrants had low employment rates compared to previous times, and the labor market participation of female women with young children declined in recent years. However, the Swiss labor market was favorable in international comparison. Both male and female migrants had a higher employment rates than in other OECD countries, and thanks to its thorough apprenticeship system, it provided children of migrants a beneficial school-to-work transition mechanism. Migrants with high qualification from non-OECD countries enjoyed a generally high employment rate (Liebig, Kohls, & Krause, 2012).

Another study focused on the cultural and economic integration of migrants in Switzerland (Kohler, 2012b). This dissertation was an assembled work of three essays which discussed integration from three aspects: the cultural integration path of eight migrant groups by tracking their behaviors and attitudes, whether the failure of integration was caused by cultural differences or unequal economic opportunities and discrimination, and whether migrant wage discrimination was more intense in host societies where the culture was more “inward-looking”. In the first essay on cultural integration, he discussed three aspects involving the cultural dimension of integration. They were school/ education experience, couple life/marriage/family, and labor market/working area. More specially, integration indicators were defined for empirical studies, which included, educational attainment, marriage, mixed couple, female labor force participation, main language, and feelings towards Switzerland.

Cultural studies: Janine Dahinden

Janine Dahinden, from the University of Neuchâtel, is devoted to transnationalism and migrant studies with a focus on gender in Switzerland. Her publications are mainly focused on integration, identity, and forced marriage of female migrants. By applying qualitative approaches such as face-to-face interview and focus group, Dahinden focused her transnational studies in specific cases, for instance, in small Swiss cities such as Neuchâtel in French-speaking Switzerland (Dahinden, 2007, 2009, 2013), and in marginalized groups such as Cabaret dancers (Dahinden, 2010) and the transnational activities of Serbia and Kosovar organizations in Switzerland (Dahinden & Moret, 2008), and also the gender equality of Swiss and Albanian young migrants (16-21 years old) at a Swiss vocational school (Duemmler, Dahinden, & Moret, 2010).

In the study of transnationalism in Neuchâtel, Dahinden studied both migrants and non-migrants. She tried to explain the daily social relations and classifications of a person's membership and belongings in Neuchâtel as a transnational space. After categorizing four transnational ideal types, weak, medium, pronounced, and strong network transnationalism, she concluded that local integration and the development of transnationalism were interrelated (Dahinden, 2009).

Most works of Dahinden in migration studies focus on Switzerland, but in her recent publications, she extended migration studies to other societies. For example, in five focus groups with German Muslims in four German cities, she and other scholars found out that almost all participants complained about being collectively discriminated against and rejected; however the Muslim affiliation held them back from being a German (Holtz, Dahinden, & Wagner, 2013).

Sociology: Ganga Jey Aratnam and Marc Helbling

Recently, the University of Basel published a book on highly-qualified migrants (HQM) in the Swiss labor market (Aratnam, 2012), supported by the Federal Office of Anti-discrimination,. In 130 qualitative interviews, many HQM described their situation in the Swiss labor market and in everyday life as positive one. But HQM expressed that they had experienced discrimination in job applications, as what they attributed to the rejection of their "otherness (*Andersseins*)".

Despite good job positions, HQM from EU and EFTA countries still faced rejections in their daily work. The current immigration situation also created competitions between the new immigrants from EU/EFTA- states and already settled immigrants (especially from poorer third countries), between immigrants from Anglo -Saxon regions and those who speak Swiss national languages, and between childless immigrants and settled female immigrants. The author added that a lot of qualified potential HQM remained untapped, especially those from third countries, even if they had exercised higher professions in their countries of origin.

Another study discussed intensively why highly-skilled German migrants were less likable than other Western Europeans in Switzerland (Helbling, 2011). Since 2005, Germans constituted the second largest migrant group in Switzerland, and since 2004 it is the biggest migrant group in the most populous Swiss city of Zurich. In the survey conducted between October of 1994 and March of 1995 of 1,300 interviews with Swiss citizens between 19 and 66 years of age in Zurich, Germans ranked as the fourth most unlikable nation, right after Yugoslavians, Arabs, and Turks. Helbling explained that these dislikes were mainly based on two reasons. First, due to the similar Germanic culture and especially due to the usage of High German and Swiss German, Germans were considered to be a cultural threat, especially in German-speaking Switzerland. Second, in the Swiss labor market, Swiss felt threatened by German migrants since many had similar educational and professional backgrounds with no language barriers. Although the author discussed a migrant phenomenon and a cultural issue in Switzerland, the survey data from 1994 is quite out of date. It only focused on the highly skilled Germans, however, neglected normal German labor migrants. There were no evident facts to prove that the latter Germans received less controversy over the former.

Conclusion

Although the migration issue was discussed in several fields, there was a continuity among these studies. Most studies were the sessional results from temporary projects and they failed to build up the theories based on their empirical studies.

Switzerland is a multilingual country and this feature was reflected in academic publications as well. Studies on Swiss migration issue were published in different languages. This, on one

hand, shows the diversity of academic language, but on the other hand it creates difficulties in knowledge sharing. Articles in economics were often written in English. However, in other studies, such as Political Science, History, and Communication Science, the publications were often written in German or in French. Due to the language barriers, it limited its international audience and also caused barriers for literature citation and international comparison.

The research mentioned above may not provide theoretical framework or empirical data for this study on the topic of media use and integration of migration in Switzerland. The research rather illustrated a picture of the immigration issue in Switzerland from the macro-, meso-, and micro- levels and from various disciplines. In the following, I will review the literature on the media use of migrants and their integration in Switzerland in detail.

3.3.2 Swiss Studies on Media and Integration

Anker, Ermutlu, and Steinmann, the Media Use of Foreigners in Switzerland, 1995

Tracing back to the history of empirical studies of migrants in Switzerland, the first notable study was in 1995 (Anker et al., 1995). However, a very long time after this study, there were no continuous studies on this topic. This national survey was sent per mail to 15,000 migrants (with a foreign residence card or a permanent residence permission) above 16 years of age from Italy, Spain, Portugal, Turkey, and Ex-Yugoslavia. In the end, 3,464 copies were filled out and sent back. This survey mainly investigated the consumption of Swiss television and radio as well as daily newspaper and magazine. The results showed that television was the most frequently used media by 98% of migrants. Moreover, 81% of them watched television daily for two hours or more. 92% of migrants read the daily newspaper and magazine, and 83% of migrants used the radio. Besides the media use behavior investigation, the research group also evaluated the usage of programs for foreigners in television and radio with comparison to the similar programs in Germany and Austria. It was reported that the television and radio programs for foreigners in their mother-tongues were consumed by between 13% and 32% of migrants, which was in accordance to their counterparts in Germany and Austria, which were used by 11% to 33% of migrants.

This study remarked the scholarly attention on the media use of migrants in Switzerland. It was a large-scale survey, which covered the whole country and five large migrant groups. It

illustrated the media use preferences in comparison to its neighboring countries and also provided valuable empirical statistics of media use of migrants in the earlier time. However, it failed to interpret the motives and reasons of migrants' media use behaviors and did not discuss it in relation with daily life and social integration.

Nowadays, Heinz Bonfadelli is the leading scholar in the field of media use and integration of migrants in Switzerland. He and his research group produced several valuable empirical studies on migration issue in Switzerland. Content analysis on media coverage of migration issue was his main investigation focus. Audience study was partly involved in his studies, however, not intensively.

Bonfadelli, Swiss National Fund Project on Migrants in Switzerland, 2007-2009

12 years after the study by Anker, et al., Bonfadelli and his research group carried out an extensive research project on migration and media in Switzerland with an empirical approach, financed by the Swiss National Fund. Based on the empirical data of a survey among 1,600 adolescents aged from 12 to 17 with migration and Swiss backgrounds, they published several contributions on the similarities and differences in terms of traditional and online media use, as well as the link between media use and social integration/cultural identity (Bonfadelli et al., 2007; Bonfadelli, 2009; Bucher & Bonfadelli, 2007a, 2007b). In this study, adolescents from Turkey, Ex-Yugoslavia, Italy, and Spain were investigated. The results showed that television consumption among ethnic minorities was more intensive than the majority population. This study pointed out that young people with migration backgrounds were not a homogeneous group but rather a group with diverse individual personalities, social backgrounds, and media use behaviors. They did not belong to either culture, neither Swiss culture nor the culture of origin (Bonfadelli et al., 2007). This finding controverts the widely accepted notions that migrants live in either a parallel society or a media ghetto. Furthermore, youths with migration backgrounds developed their roots from where they were living and in a relation to overseas, depending on their relatives, friends, and peers (Bonfadelli et al., 2007). This finding challenges the popular assumption that migrants have either a hybrid identity, or a homogeneous identity.

Another media audience study focused on media and Internet use, information demand, and information sources of migrants (Bonfadelli & Signer, 2008), supported by the Federal Office of Communication (BAKOM). This study applied both a quantitative survey, which received 362 responses and qualitative focus group interview, which contained 11 focus groups consisting of 50 migrants. The study put an emphasis on Internet use and found that 90% of migrants had Internet access, and that they used Internet more frequent than television and print media. Similarly, this study rejected again the notion of “media ghetto” and it argued that migrants consumed television mostly in German and French languages. Moreover, migrants, who were frequent Internet users, were usually the information resources for their friends, families, and colleagues. It also noted that the migrants’ comments on Swiss media were ambivalent. Some migrants complained that their ethnic groups were too negatively reported on, but others claimed the opposite. These studies noticed the changes brought by the Internet and therefore compared Internet use and traditional media (television, radio, and print media) use. The attention was focused generally on Internet usage, such as Internet access, Internet use knowledge or proficiency, Internet use behavior, and information reference on the Internet. However, in current Swiss society, Internet access is no longer a problem, and I argue that the consumption of Internet content and the choice of various Internet media make the differences from traditional mass media use behavior.

Several Theses on Migrants and Media, 2005-2008

The research activities of Bonfadelli and his research group also increased the research interests of graduates at the University of Zurich. During this period, media use of migrants was a popular topic for several graduates dissertation and licentiate theses. During October of 2006 and April of 2007, Piga investigated 721 first and second Italian migrants above 16 years old in Switzerland through a written and online survey. This survey was designed to discover the relationship between media use and integration of Italian migrants in Switzerland (Piga, 2008). She suggested that media use behavior and integration were highly and significantly correlated. This meant that Italian-oriented migrants consumed media much more in Italian than in German and vice versa; these correlations were significant in both first and second generations of Italian migrants. This study also indicated that language proficiency was essential to media use choice. People with Italian backgrounds, who had good German language skills, tended to consume media more in German than in Italian. This work is an important reference for my study, especially in the theoretical frameworks and

methodology. But since my study aims at cross-nation comparison and emphasizing the influence of social media, I will expand the existing theoretical framework together with the development of media industry and with an international perspective.

Another graduation thesis based on the survey and interviews of migrants in German-speaking Switzerland, analyzed their use and attitude of Swiss media towards the integration process (J. Chan, 2008). This study indicated that migrants in German-speaking Switzerland consumed much media in German, but also much from their home countries. However, migrants mostly evaluated Swiss media in a negative way, except for a few helpful functions such as learning the German language and providing information. The negative points were too little coverage on migration issue and the biased representation of ethnic minority in news products.

Bonfadelli, Media Coverage and Audience, 2010, Albinfo, 2013

Later on, Bonfadelli continued the study focused on the media coverage and audience, financed by the Federal Office of Communication (BAKOM). These studies were more media specific and focused on the use of radio and television (Bonfadelli, 2010). By applying a standardized questionnaire and a focus group of both media producers from Swiss radio and Swiss television, and migrants in Switzerland, Bonfadelli analyzed media and migrants from three levels: Swiss media coverage over migration issues, Swiss media staffs, and migrants' comments on Swiss media. The results showed that, first, migration topics were seldom represented in Swiss radio and television in the area of Zurich and Bern, which was only 6.4% of all programs; second, migration issues were usually related with politics, crimes, and justice; third, most reports on migration issues were negative; last, the voice of migrants were rarely covered in reports. Another note, politicians, administrative officers, and experts consisted of three-fourths of the news resources on migration issue.

In media production, there were only six percent staffs with migration backgrounds at Swiss media. The interviewed media staffs gave the reasons why few migrants were quoted in new reports were that few migrants were fluent in German or in Swiss German. Media staffs agreed that migration issue should be given more attentions and there should be special channels or programs for migrants even in their own languages. However, on the other side, the concerns were if such migrant programs would be “ghetto programs”, or if migrant programs were necessary since programs in mother languages could be accessed through

Internet or television satellite. In a word, there were no detailed or obligatory concepts on migration topic.

At last, Bonfadelli (2010) investigated the audience experience of migrants. Most migrants, who participated in the survey, described their life in Switzerland as very good or at least satisfied. It was discovered from the focus group that migrants could obtain rare information about their home countries from Swiss media, and that was the reason why migrants also used other media channels, such as Internet, E-mail, and television to receive news about their home countries. Two-thirds of migrants that participated in the survey thought that the images of migrants in Swiss media were too negative. However, migrants agreed that press was a potential integration method. On the contrary, Internet was used to search for information, however not in a relation with integration.

This study provided a profound analysis and discussion of media production, news coverage on migration issues, migrant audience, and their dynamic relations. By interviewing both media staff and migrant audience, this study offered a dialogue between these two parts. Again, by interviewing media staff and analyzing media content, this study explained a lot of questions and criticisms brought up by many other news frame studies on migration issues.

Most recently, Bonfadelli and Ideli were engaged in the research project of an Arabic news website in Switzerland, which aims at encouraging the integration of Arabic-speaking migrants into Switzerland, Albinfo.ch. Both content analysis on the website contents and an online survey towards the audience on the website were applied. The newest publication of the results is forthcoming.

Trebbe and Schoenhagen, 2011

Trebbe and Schoenhagen investigated the perception of migrants of their representation in Swiss public television. Based on a qualitative pilot study of six group discussions across German-, French-, and Italian-speaking Switzerland, the study showed that there was a high diversity between the desire for more presence and participation, but the wish to be covered less in the spotlight (Trebbe & Schoenhagen, 2011). In addition, this study pointed out that most interviewed migrants were very well integrated into Switzerland and had a double identity. However, interviewed migrants felt that they were marginalized in the media and thus were not being considered to be a part of the society. Not only were migrants rarely

represented in media, but their images were largely negatively framed together with religion, delinquency, and asylum requirements. A hierarchical structure in the media coverage about migrants with different origins existed. Simply, the more foreign the people, the more negative their representations were in the media. For example, migrants from EU countries were better described than those from outside of the EU.

Signer, Multilingual Swiss Media System, 2011

Focusing on the multilingualism caused by the four Swiss language regions, Signer discussed how Swiss media dealt with the multilingual and cultural challenges. Based on qualitative document analysis and quantitative content analysis, survey, and focus group interview, the results of this study showed that neither media regulation nor media performance reflected the multicultural and multilingual tradition of Switzerland. This was mainly expressed in two aspects. Firstly, the integration of immigrant minorities was only a marginal subject in broadcasting regulation, and secondly, people with migration backgrounds indicated that their integration was not supported by Swiss media (Signer et al., 2011).

Bonfadelli, et al. News Frames of Migration, 2007

Above, only the research of media use of migrants in Switzerland was mentioned, for example: the frames of migration in mass media (Horntrich 2007; Ming 2007), the special focus on adolescent migrants, and the special focus on Islam (Bonfadelli 2007). Most recently, in 2010 there was one comparative project of the migrant issue in mass media between China and Switzerland (Chen 2010, Chen and Bonfadelli 2011).

The above presented studies on media use and integration in Switzerland, and put the focus mainly on traditional mass media while leaving out social media. Also, social media, takes adolescents as its target group and again leaves out the young adults such as student migrants. Social media use and student migrants are exactly the two focuses of this study. Social media is changing lives of many people, social relationships, and contact behaviors with an unexpectedly rapid speed. Students are exactly the frequent users of social media. Compared to the frequent exposure of migrant topics in mass media and political campaigns in

Switzerland, the research of media use and integration is relatively uncommon during the past seventeen years. Studies on new migrant groups and new media types should be encouraged.

3.3 Conclusion of the Research Status Quo

It is nearly impossible to summarize the developments and the results of this exciting research field of media use by migrants and integration. The research object itself changed, for example how the media type changed from television to the Internet and then to social media. In addition, studies deal with very different migrant groups, such as Turkish immigrants in Germany and Chinese communities in the U.S. Not only do the research objects change, but the migrants and media changed fundamentally in the past 30 years as well. As a consequence, the evaluation of the integrative function of media use depends not only on the proposed definition and operationalization of “integration”, but essentially on the studied migrant groups: How old are they? How long do they live in the new host country? What is the level of their educational background and language skills? Considering these questions, there are significant differences between the studies dealing with young people from migrant families being socialized in the school system, and the studies focusing on adult migrants in the working process.

3.3.1 Reviewed Studies on Media Use and Integration in Table

In the following, I will summarize all of the literature related with media use and integration reviewed in Section Three. They will be illustrated in tables under the categories of author, research interests, research methods, sample, and the most important conclusions.

These tables will provide an overview on the most relevant literature with their most important structure and findings. Literatures are reviewed after major authors. Based on this, in the second part, I will discuss the major contributions, the common conclusions and absence in the existing literature and their inspiration for this study.

Table 20: International Studies Review

Author	Research Interests	Research Method	Sample	Conclusion
Hwang & He (1999)	Newspaper, magazines, radio, television, cable television, VCR and computerized information sources	Field observation and extensive interview in 1993	N= 39, observed N=33, interviewed Chinese immigrants in the U.S.	Information-oriented media users were better acculturated than those with entertainment-orientation. Host media consumption did not translate into a higher acculturation.
Jeffres (2000)	Ethnic media use and ethnic identity	Panel studies, every four years between 1976 and 1992	N= 768, in 1976 N= 392, in 1980 N= 363, in 1984 N= 157, in 1992 13 white ethnic groups in the U.S.	Ethnic media use led to stronger ethnic identity. Mainstream media use was negatively related ethnic identity.
Yang, Wu, Zhu, & Brian (2004)	Acculturation need, media usage motives, and the frequency of using U.S.-based television and Internet content	Cross-sectional survey	N= 84 Chinese students in the U.S.	The higher Chinese students' acculturation motives were, the more frequently students used U.S.-based Internet sites.
Ying (2005)	Acculturative stressor	Panel studies for two years	Taiwanese students in the U.S.	Academic challenges turned out to be the greatest difficulty in acculturation process.
Adoni,	Media contents	Institutional analysis of	Russian and Arab	Four integration types

Caspi & Cohen (2006)	Media use, hybrid identity and integration	the Russian and Arabic media Survey	immigrants in Israel	according to media language consumption preferences: Dualists, Separatists, Adapters, and Detached
Shuan g&Lou w (2007)	Print media use, ethnic identity, intergroup contacts, and acculturation orientations	Survey Purposive and snow-ball sampling	N= 265, 1976 Chinese immigrants in Australia	Ethnic media use was negatively related with assimilation.
Elias & Lemis h, (2008)	Mass media and immigrant family, Young culture	Semi- structured, in- depth interview in 2004	30 immigrant families, including 19 girls, 19 boys (aged from 6 to 18), 29 mothers and 20 fathers Immigrants from Soviet Union in Israel	Mass media had a central role in immigrant families. Media in host languages facilitated the social integration and youth culture. Media as a identity maker Television was the primary medium

Table 21: German Studies Review

Author	Research Interests	Research Method	Sample	Conclusion
Weiss, Trebbe (2001)	Integration, media use	Quantitative face-to-face interview in 2000	N=1842 Turks above 14 years old in Germany	Age had a strong influence in the integration process. Working participation and better education were important for better-integrated group. Television was the most common media access.
Trebbe (2009)	Integration, demographics, and mass media use	Quantitative telephone survey in 2006	N=503 Young Turks in Germany	Internet was the No.1 access for information
Hafez (2002)	Media use, integration, language, media content about migration	Qualitative intensive interviews between 2001 and 2002	NA	Six groups: cultural-exile, political-exile, diaspora, bi-culture, trans-culture, and assimilation users.
Ruhrmann (2007)	Media reception	Television reports on migrants Audience survey Reception experiment	N=160 Foreign students in Germany	Television was the most frequent information source

Simon (2007, 2008, 2011)	Media use behavior, young migrants	Quantitative survey	N=3010, in 2007 N=3302, 2011 People with 6 ethnic backgrounds in Germany	Demographic factors were more important than ethnic backgrounds regarding media language preference A weak linkage between integration and German media consumption
Hepp (2008, 2009, 2011)	Cultural identity, diaspora, and communicative networking	Qualitative network analysis, interviews, and media diary	NA	Original-, ethnic-, and world- oriented cultural identities
Kissau (2008)	Internet use, identity	Quantitative content analysis, website link structure analysis, and survey	N=226 Migrants from Soviet Union and Turkey in Germany	Russian migrants as transnational online community Turkish migrants as ethnic online community Kurdish migrants as virtual diaspora

Table 22: Other European Studies Review

Author	Research Interests	Research Method	Sample	Conclusion
Madianou (2005)	The impact of media on the behavior and daily life	Qualitative in-depth interview and participant observation	21 interviews between 1998 and 2001 Turkish migrants in Athens	Language choice of media understood as an indicator of participant wish in the society
Georgiou (2001, 2006, 2013)	Belonging, online and offline communication	Qualitative focus group	18 focus groups with Arab speakers in London, Madrid, and Nicosia in 2009	Two positions of migrants: Strategic nostalgia and Banal nomadism
Christensen (2012)	Space and identity, transnationalism, social media	Qualitative in-depth interview and site visits and observation	N=18 Turkish and Kurdish migrants in Sweden	Turkish group was world-oriented
D'Haeuens, Peters (2005, 2007)	Media use (radio, television, print media, and Internet)	Quantitative survey	N=1913 Five biggest migrant groups in the Netherlands	Integration did not imply a conflict between home and host cultures
Komito and Bates (2009, 2011)	Social media, personal communication tools, integration	Quantitative survey	N=26, in 2008 Polish migrants in Dublin N=65, 3 times interview over 2 years Filipino and Polish migrants in Ireland	Social media worked more effectively than earlier internet applications Social media supported virtual community and enabled a shared experience

Table 23: Swiss Studies Review

Author	Research Interests	Research Method	Sample	Conclusion
Anker, Ermutlu, Steinmann (1995)	Media consumption of radio, television, newspaper and magazine	Quantitative survey	N=3464 Five ethnic groups in Switzerland	Television was the most frequently used media
Bonfadelli et al. (2007, 2009)	Media use, identity	Quantitative survey	N=1600 Adolescents Four ethnic groups in Switzerland	Television consumption more intensive than major population
Bonfadelli & Signer (2008)	Media and Internet use, information demand and information sources	Quantitative survey and qualitative focus group	N=362 N=50 (11 focus group)	Internet was more frequently used than television
Piga (2008)	Media use and integration	Quantitative survey	N=721 Italian migrants in Switzerland	Media use and integration were highly significantly correlated. Language proficiency was essential to media use choice.
Bonfadelli (2010)	Media use and integration	Quantitative survey and focus group	NA	Migrants obtained rare information about their home countries from Swiss media and that's why they used other media channels.

				Internet was used to search for information but not in a relation with integration
Trebbe & Schoenhagen (2011)	Migrants' view on media coverage on migrants	Qualitative group discussion	NA	Migrants had double identity Migrants required form more presence and participation in media
Signer et al. (2011)	Media regulation, media performance, media use of migrants	Qualitative document analysis Quantitative content analysis, survey, and focus group	N=362 (survey) N=50 (11 focus group)	The integration of immigrants was only a marginal subject in broadcasting regulation. Integration was not supported by Swiss media

3.3.2 Empirical Contributions and Absence

At last, I will summarize all of the studies in aspects of ethnic groups, immigrant demographics, research methods, media use, media use and integration, language factors and other factors. These aspects are decided in relation to the research questions and design of this study, although there are always more aspects to be further discussed. In conclusion, I try to identify the most important findings, debates, and gaps in the existing studies and apply them in this study.

Ethnic groups

Most studies chose ethnic groups according to their proportion in the host society, meaning the biggest migrant groups in number. The most studied ethnic groups are Chinese, Turkish, and Russian. Chinese migrants were mainly studied in immigrant countries, such as Taiwanese in the U.S. (Ying, 2005), Chinese in the U.S. (Hwang & He, 1999), and Chinese

in Australia (Shuang & Louw, 2007). Studies on Turkish groups were mostly done in European countries, for example, Turkish groups in Athens (Madianou, 2005), Turkish and Kurdish migrants in Sweden (Christensen, 2012), Turkish in Belgium (Gezduci & D'Haenens, 2007), five largest migrant groups in the Netherlands (D'Haenens & Peeters, 2005), and Turkish in Germany (Hafez, 2002; Trebbe et al., 2010; Trebbe & Schönhagen, 2011; Trebbe, 2007, 2009; Weiss & Trebbe, 2001). Russian groups appeared mainly in European countries as well, for instance, Russians and Arabs in Israel (Adoni et al., 2006) and migrants from the former Soviet Union in Israel (Elias & Lemish, 2008). Other studies chose the biggest ethnic groups in the country, such as Italian groups in Switzerland (Piga, 2008), selected immigrant groups from Italy, Spain, Portugal, Turkey, and Ex-Yugoslavia in Switzerland (Anker et al., 1995), and Polish and Filipino in Ireland (Komito & Bates, 2009; Komito, 2011).

Studies looking across ethnic groups were less often explored and major studies took several selected ethnic groups as research targets. The only three complete across ethnic group studies were the study on young migrants in Switzerland (Bonfadelli, 2009) and the media use behavior of migrants in Germany in 2007 and 2011 (Erk & Neuwöhner, 2011; Erk, 2007). The other studies focused on several selected ethnic groups, such as 13 different white ethnic groups in the U.S. (Jeffres, 2000) and the biggest ethnic groups in Germany (Hepp et al., 2011b; Kissau & Hunger, 2008b). Studies that look across ethnic groups require a multilingual approach and the correction for the misunderstanding of various terms under multicultural backgrounds. These are challenges for researchers in the sense of time, workload, and language proficiency.

However, comparative ethnic group studies should be greatly encouraged. This will help people to understand the ethnic differences among immigrant groups and will provide a whole picture on the media access, integration level, and major migration problems in one country.

Immigrant Demographics

When studying immigrants with the same ethnic background, age division is one of the most important demographic factors. Some studies took immigrant children and adolescents as the main research target and other times took them together with their parents (Bonfadelli, 2009; Elias & Lemish, 2008; Trebbe, 2007) or the family as a whole (Hwang & He, 1999). Other

studies investigated one ethnic group with immigrants of all ages (Anker et al., 1995; Georgiou, 2013; Jeffres, 2000; Shuang & Louw, 2007; Weiss & Trebbe, 2001).

There were few studies focusing on immigrant students (Ruhrmann et al., 2007; Ying, 2005). As mentioned in the first section, student migrants are a prominent group among global migrants. The homogeneous social demographic backgrounds among student migrants provide the possibility to conduct studies across ethnic groups.

Media use

In the field of media use and integration studies, traditional mass media was the dominant media type. For a long time, most studies centered on the usage of mass media and focused on comparing different mass media forms, such as television, radio, newspaper, and magazine (Adoni et al., 2006; Elias & Lemish, 2008; Hwang & He, 1999; Jeffres, 2000; Shuang & Louw, 2007; Trebbe, 2007). Among these studies, television was considered to be the most frequently used mass media by migrants (Anker et al., 1995) and it played an important role in the life of migrants in new society (D'Haenens & Peeters, 2005; Elias & Lemish, 2008; Hafez, 2002; Ruhrmann et al., 2007; Weiss & Trebbe, 2001). This is mainly due to the introduction of satellite television, which allowed migrants to keep viewing programs from their home countries (Hargreaves & Mahdjoub, 1997). Furthermore, more scholars tried to theorize the use of television and integration, and they found that television had a negative correlation with integration (D'Haenens & Peeters, 2005).

However, more and more scholars noticed the importance of Internet use and claimed that Internet use should be analyzed as well (Hwang & He, 1999; Jeffres, 2000). Internet use was found out to be important in migrants' life (Kissau & Hunger, 2008b; Trebbe, 2007, 2009), and was then taken into analysis (D'Haenens & Peeters, 2005; Trebbe et al., 2010). One empirical study stated that the Internet became the number one platform for information access for migrants and therefore surpassed television use (Bonfadelli & Signer, 2008; Trebbe, 2007). However, among different studies, the definition of Internet use was not as clear as mass media use. It was defined among various online activities, such as web page surfing, chat room use, video gaming, music downloading, and more. These definitions were too wide and failed to distinguish the information obtaining functions from other online usages of Internet. In addition, some scholars said that the Internet was used to search for information, however not in an explicit relation with integration (Bonfadelli, 2010).

In most recent studies, more and more scholars emphasized the communication function of the Internet. It was claimed that the Internet was a new way for direct communication, and online communication functioned for migrants both online and off-line life (Georgiou, 2006). The social networking and communicating function of the Internet became the most significant feature of Web 2.0, and it was studied as a part of the daily life of migrants. Some innovative studies focused on the relationship of digital media and personal life, and others studied digital media and mobile phones (Hepp et al., 2011b), or social media and personal communication tools (Komito & Bates, 2009; Komito, 2011). To emphasize the role of digital media, scholars claimed that it intensifies the segmentation of pre-existing cultural parts, such as family, friends, and other networks (Hepp et al., 2011b).

This dissertation will take social media as the focus. Social media will be thoroughly investigated as well as its diverse forms. Mass media will be studied as well, in the purpose of testing the existing theoretical framework, and being compared with the function of social media.

Research Methods

The dominant research method in the field of media use and integration is the quantitative method. Survey is the most prevailing applied quantitative method (Anker et al., 1995; Bonfadelli, 2009, 2010; Jeffres, 2000; Komito & Bates, 2011; Piga, 2008; Ruhrmann et al., 2007; Shuang & Louw, 2007; Trebbe, 2007; Weiss & Trebbe, 2001). There were different ways to conduct a survey study, such as survey per post (Anker et al., 1995), telephone survey (Trebbe, 2007), online survey (Kissau & Hunger, 2008a; Piga, 2008; Ruhrmann et al., 2007), and face-to-face survey (Jeffres, 2000; Komito & Bates, 2011). The different ways of surveying greatly depend on the existing technical resources, research funding, and research project staff. Sometimes qualitative methods were used as the supplementary methods of quantitative studies, such as in focus groups (Bonfadelli & Signer, 2008)

Other quantitative research methods were applied as well. The Interview is the second most favorable research method, for example a semi-structured, in-depth interview (Elias & Lemish, 2008), a face-to-face interview (D'Haenens & Peeters, 2005; Weiss & Trebbe, 2001), participation observation, and extensive interviews (Hwang & He, 1999). Some studies applied content analysis, and website link structure analysis together with a survey (Kissau & Hunger, 2008b).

Qualitative method is another research approach. Scholars applied theoretical perspectives from humanities and tried to explain the meaning of media use in the process of identity transformation. Methods were usually combined into one study, such as interview, freehand network maps, media diaries, material documentation of bookmarked links, and Internet usage places (Hepp, 2008), in-depth interview and participation observation (Madianou, 2005), site visits and observation (Christensen, 2012), and focus groups (Georgiou, 2013).

This study will apply a standardized online survey as the quantitative research method to describe the feature of media use and integration level of student migrants in Switzerland. There are sufficient empirical indicators and analysis models, since survey is the most prevalent applied research method in media use and integration.

Language and Media Use

The language proficiency of both home and host languages were considered to be the dominant factor when analyzing media use behavior in many studies. Language proficiency was essential in choosing media (Piga, 2008) and was considered to be the determinative factor for both home and host media uses (Gezduci & D'Haenens, 2007). Language was emphasized as a dominant importance in the media use. Language-based media choice could be interpreted as an indicator of a participant's wish to integrate into the society (Madianou, 2005).

Scholars added some other factors that influence media choice, and language proficiency was always among them. Age, education, gender, birthplace, and German language proficiency were the determined factors for the language choice of media (Erk & Neuwöhner, 2011). Religion, ethnic-cultural position, and the command of the home language were the strongest determinants for home language media use, whereas host language media use was strongly determined by host language proficiency (Gezduci & D'Haenens, 2007). The longer the German language acquisition lasted, the more likely that the migrants kept Turkish-language media oriented use habits (Hafez, 2002).

Language proficiency is treated as the leading criteria when comparing different ethnic groups. Switzerland has four official languages. In its German-speaking part, Switzerland shares the same German language with its neighboring countries, Germany and Austria. But

the oral German in Switzerland is with special accents, which is very different from the other two German-speaking countries, and also different from region to region in Switzerland; it is called Swiss German instead of High German. This special language phenomenon is handled carefully throughout this study. Foreign students whose mother tongue is German are categorized differently from Swiss student with migration backgrounds. In addition, the skills of oral Swiss German are treated as one language factor. Due to the special language situation in Switzerland, language proficiency is treated as an attribute rather than a variable.

This study will investigate whether host language proficiency has a positive correlation with integration into the host society. Different from other publications, a large part of migrants in this study have the same mother language (German) as in the host country (Switzerland). This difference will be distinguished from other migrants, who are used to speaking other languages.

Media use and Integration

When discussing the results of empirical studies on media use and integration, there are four different opinions on the effects of media use on integration levels. Some suggested that they are strongly related; some claimed that they are mixed related with some other concerns, some concluded that they are weakly related, and some did not relate media use and integration in a general sense but they noticed the importance of ethnic media. Surveys and interviews are the most commonly applied research methods, and most studies are based on a one-time-point investigation. As a consequence, there is only limited evidence to show the correlation between media use and integration. Two other questions that are under-addressed are: whether there are different effects of the use of various media, such as, print media, television, radio, internet, and social media, and also whether there are different effects of the consumption of different media content, for instance, news, information, and entertainment programs.

Media use and Integration - Strongly related

Some scholars suggested that media use and integration are strongly related. Media in the host language assisted immigrant children in different ways to facilitate their social integration as well as the local youth culture. Furthermore, they added that media functioned

as an identity maker (Elias & Lemish, 2008), and pointed out a linear relationship between media use and integration. Media in the host language was central in “outwards” integration, while media in home language was vital in “inwards” integration. Besides, media with a “global” nature was used as a compromise (Elias & Lemish, 2008). Media use and integration were highly significantly correlated.

Media use and Integration - Mixed related

Some studies claimed that media use and integration were somehow related, but mediated by some other factors. Hwang and He suggested a content-orientation media use and integration that means more information-oriented media users were moderately acculturated with the American culture, while those with low acculturation level were the ones who only consumed entertainment-oriented programs. Therefore, host media consumption did not automatically translate into a higher acculturation (Hwang & He, 1999).

Trebbe claimed that media consumption in the host language had a positive effect on the integration process while media use in the home language had a negative effect. One example is the use of Turkish media, when media content was independent from the attitude towards Germany and the social interaction with the Germans. The consumption of German and Turkish media was independent from each other. Turkish language media use was, if at all, only a purely assimilative acculturation strategy contrary to what is reasonable in the given assumptions. The most powerful use-related factor to media use was the extent of the German media use. It could be a positive enhancement for integrative and assimilative strategies, and was described as a disincentive to be separated and marginalizing acculturation strategies (Trebbe, 2009).

Integration created a bridge rather than a conflict between home and host cultures. Well-integrated migrants did use more media in the host language, but they also consumed more media overall (D’Haenens & Peeters, 2005).

Media use and Integration - Less or rarely related

Some research suggested that media use and integration were rarely related. Generally, exposure to print media did not have a significant impact on ethnic identity (Shuang & Louw, 2007). The across ethnic minorities survey in Germany suggested that there was a very weak linkage between media use and integration (Erk & Neuwöhner, 2011).

Media use and Integration - Ethnic media

Some scholars did not directly discuss the relation between media use and integration, but they instead mentioned that ethnic media played an important role, for example, for Greek Cypriot in London (Georgiou, 2001). Ethnic media use led to stronger ethnic identification across time, whereas mainstream media use was negatively related with ethnic identity. However, the effects in the reverse direction were not clear (Jeffres, 2000). Ethnic media consumption had a negative relation with assimilation, but was positively related with separation (Shuang & Louw, 2007).

Other factors mediating integration

Although focusing on the media use and integration of migrants, studies also found out that there were other factors influencing integration. Age was one of the most significant factors and media use orientation heavily depended on the age (Hafez, 2002). Age also had a strong influence in the integration process. It implied that active working participation and better education were important features of better-integrated groups (Weiss & Trebbe, 2001). However, another study suggested that the integration of older generation was not a concern (D'Haenens & Peeters, 2005). After discussing the relation between media use and integration, Hwang and He (1999) argued that the age appeared to be important when an immigrant arrived in the U.S. and into working environment. Another finding was that intergroup contact was beneficial to both ethnic cultural maintenance and host culture adaption (Shuang & Louw, 2007).

Age is measured in this study. But since student migrants are generally young adults between 20 to 35 years old, whether the differences among this age period plays a role will be analyzed in the following part. However, it is assumed that age is less important than other social demographic factors, such as nationality and mother language in this migrant group.

Above I discussed the most important contributions of existing studies. This summary does not aim to cover all of the diverse features of each literature, but rather the most important and relevant points in regarding to the research design of this study. For instance, since student migrants are chosen as the research target, the studies over the influence of different ages and educational backgrounds on the integration process are not completely explored. On

the other hand, because of the across ethnic groups study, more attention is paid to the conclusions and comparisons among ethnic groups.

To conclude, this research will study the media use and integration of student migrants registered at universities in German-speaking Switzerland. I agree that migrants are not homogenous and there are various media use behaviors and integration types among student migrants. Due to the multi-ethnic backgrounds of student migrants, their mother languages together with their nationalities will be used to group them into larger ethnic groups for comparison. Language competence is given high importance in many aspects, and the language preference of media use will be analyzed with their integration situations.

The first goal of this study is to define certain media use behaviors and integration types, and then to distinguish them from each other. I assume that the language preference of media is correlated with integration types. The assumptions are that the consumption of media from the host country or in the host language has a positive correlation with one's integration extent in the host country, and that the consumption of media from the home country or in home language has a negative correlation with one's integration extent in the host country.

Internet use is emphasized in this study, however, in a much specific manner. Social media is treated as one independent media type compared to mass media. The assumption of mass media use and integration types will be similarly applied to social media use. In addition, this study tries to measure if the language preferences on social media are in a positive correlation with the mass media use orientation.

In conclusion, this study tries to discuss the possibility of an international dimension of integration types and international/English oriented media use consumption. Some studies mentioned the international/world orientation of migrants (Bonfadelli et al., 2007; Christensen, 2012; Hepp et al., 2011b), however, they failed to theorize this phenomenon based on empirical facts. Though questions such as English use frequency, international friends' circles, and international/cosmopolitan identity, this study aims at theorizing a third international dimension beyond the dual dimensions of home and host societies.

Chapter Two: Methodology

“Minorities in a globalizing world are a constant reminder of the incompleteness of national purity (Appadurai, 2006, p. 84).”

This chapter will explain the methodology of the study. It shows the operationalization of the theoretical frameworks, which was presented in Chapter One. It serves as the bridge between theoretical backgrounds and the empirical findings of this study. First, the research design will be presented, which consists of the research questions, hypotheses, and comparing groups. Second, in more detail, the main research method is explained. Each theoretical assumptions and hypothesis is designed into various variables, which can be measured in a standardized survey. In the end, the population, sample, and the field report are presented.

4. Research Design

In this section, I will introduce the research design of this study, which includes the research questions, hypotheses, and the comparing groups.

4.1 Research Questions

This study examines the media effects in the integration process of migrants in a new society and employs the *Media Effects* Paradigm.

The **main research question** is:

Are different forms of media used by migrant groups correlated with corresponding integration strategies in the host society?

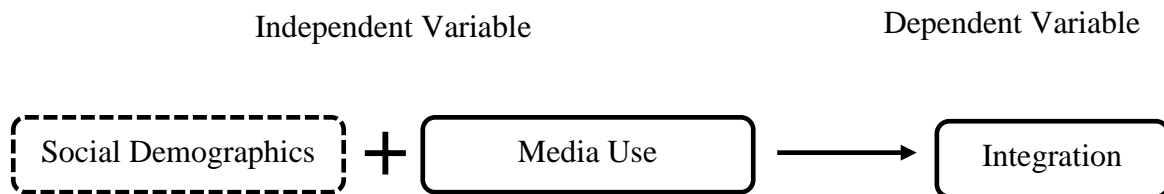
The **sub research questions** are:

- R1** Are there differences among various migrant groups concerning media use behaviors and integration types?
- R2** Are there differences between social media use and mass media consumptions? If yes, do these differences influence integration types?

This study presumes that media use is neither the result of nor the reason for integration. Rather, they are both treated in a dynamic process and will be evaluated separately together with social demographics. This research employs the *Media Effects* Paradigm. Although there are various factors, which influence the social integration of migrants, media use is the

central topic of this study. It involves a two-step analyses of first, media use and integration, and second, social demographics, media use, and integration.

Figure 15: Research design



This study is media-centric based, however it does not neglect the interactive process of media use and integration. The impact on media use from integration will be taken in to consideration when drawing conclusions.

Most research findings based on the *Media-Effects* Paradigm are based on the studies of traditional mass media, where boundaries are clearly divided into home and host media. Social media has made this border vague, although regional and local social media do exist. This study notices this difference and will measure the applicability of existing theoretical framework in the data analysis and discussion.

4.2 Hypotheses

According to the research questions and research design, there are five main hypotheses which are aiming at integration types, social media consumption, mass media consumption, and a possible international orientation.

- H1** There are certain types of integration.
It is possible to describe them and distinguish them from each other.
- H2** The consumption of media from the host country or in host language has a positive correlation with one's integration extent in the host country.
- H3** The consumption of media from the home country or in home language has a negative correlation with one's integration extent in the host country.

- H4** The social media use preferences in host or home language is in a positive correlation with the mass media use preferences.
- H5** If it exists an international (English)-oriented media use consumption and integration type.

4.3 Comparing Groups: Three Ethnic Groups According to Mother Language

What social demographic factors would have a stronger influence on media use patterns? The main subjects of this study, students at university with migration backgrounds, have very similar social demographic backgrounds, such as age, educational background, and income. However, these social demographic factors are usually used as comparison standards, when scholars study single ethnic groups (Piga, 2008; Trebbe, 2007).

Different from many other studies, both Swiss students (second generation) and foreign students are included in this research. This study defines people with migration backgrounds as someone who has at least one foreign-born parent. Thus, it includes the second generation of migrants in Switzerland, although some of them might have never been to the birth country of their parent(s). Therefore, participants with Swiss nationality (either first or second nationality) should be distinguished from foreign participants.

Foreseeably, German-speaking migrants, especially students from Germany, are the dominant migrants in German-speaking Switzerland. Some investigated universities released the foreign student percentage rate according to nationalities. The students from Germany made up 79.3% of total foreign students at the University of St. Gallen in 2013, and 49.4% at the University of Zurich (Universität St.Gallen, 2013a; Universität Zürich, 2013b). Together with the statistics of German-speaking migrants in Section One of “Migration Facts in Switzerland”, I assume that German-speaking students are the dominant migrant group at six German-speaking universities in Switzerland. German and Austrian citizens have the same mother language as the official language in German-speaking Switzerland (although not the Swiss German dialect) and they are geographically close and culturally similar to Switzerland. In terms of the language and cultural advantage, German-speaking migrants should be distinguished from other foreign migrants regarding their media use behaviors and integration extent.

Compared to Swiss students and German-speaking students, other non-German-speaking students have more barriers in terms of consuming media content in German or integration into the Swiss German cultural environment. It is assumed that non-German-speaking students have a different media use patterns from the other two groups. However, it is unclear if there are dominant migrant groups in non-German-speaking foreign students, in terms of either ethnic backgrounds, mother languages, or nationality. If the migration backgrounds of this group are very disperse and if there are very small populations in each group, it does not make sense to compare single individuals with each other. If there is a dominant population in some migrant groups, then comparisons within this group will be discussed.

Thus, different from existing studies, the participants will be compared in three groups: Swiss students, German-speaking students and non-German-speaking students. Due to high mobility and inter-marriage, especially in Europe, it causes some difficulty in choosing nationality, mother language, or birthplace as the definition of migrant groups. For example, one person was born and grew up in Switzerland with Italian parent(s). This person maintains an Italian nationality and has two mother languages: German (from school) and Italian (from family).

4.4 Comparing Groups: Mass Media and Social Media

Social media use is evaluated in this study as a single media type. Different from existing studies, social media use, is analyzed in an individual category, instead of Internet use in general. It is therefore treated as one type of media, not one of the various Internet activities.

Social media, as a web-based service, integrates several Internet functions, such as social networking, content sharing, and user-generated contents. It interfaces both interpersonal communication and mass communication. Although social media is still developing and there are various scholarly categories of it, it is undoubtedly one of the most widely used Internet applications nowadays.

Social media is not simply adapted to the theoretical framework that developed based on the studies on mass media use, but rather it is categorized and measured in accordance with its own features. In order to find the suitable category for social media, both media use frequency and language preference are examined. Some of the purposes of using social media is in regards to its social networking, content sharing, and private user behavior features. By comparing social media and mass media use, this study tries to find out if certain social

media use behaviors have relations with mass media use pattern. If social media use influences integration types as well, and if such influences do exist, I will also look at the relations between the two.

5. Quantitative Online Survey

A standardized online survey with majority of closed-ended questions is applied as the investigation method of this study. Each question is designed to quantify the theoretical definition of the research design. At the same time, the expression, order, and explanation of each questions are tested several times to ensure that, first they are measurable and operational for the data analysis and for explaining the hypotheses, and second, that they are meaningful and reader-friendly for participants.

In the following section, the survey design will be illustrated to show how three theoretical dimensions are operationalized to interpret the empirical definition of them. The pre-test of the survey was conducted to ensure the quality of a valid survey. Then, the population and the sampling method are explained. At last, it shows the field report of the final participation of the survey.

5.1 Survey Design: Operationalization of Central Dimensions

The standardized survey can objectively describe the general patterns and characters of a certain group, however, it is often criticized that it neglects individual differences. The demographic similarities among student migrants, to some extent, weaken the natural defect of the applied research method.

Migration Backgrounds

Students with migration backgrounds are defined as students who were born outside of Switzerland, or who have at least one foreign-born (outside of Switzerland) parent. In the survey, the birthplace and the first and second nationality of participants, their father, their mother, and their spouse (if participants came to Switzerland with their spouse) were investigated. In addition, the migration reasons and the length of stay in Switzerland were asked.

Table 24: Migration Backgrounds

Variable	Content	Question Type
Migration backgrounds of participants	Birthplace First nationality Second nationality	Closed question
Migration backgrounds of their parents	Birth Place First nationality Second nationality	Closed question
Migration backgrounds of their spouse, only if they moved to Switzerland because of their spouse	Birth Place First nationality Second nationality	Closed question
Migration reasons	If moved to Switzerland because of family reasons or study reasons	Closed question
Family members in Switzerland	Spouse, child (ren), mother, father, siblings, grandmother, grandfather, uncle/auntie, others	
Stay length in Switzerland	Years	Closed question
Mother language	First mother language Second mother language	Open question

Integration Indicators

Integration is a challenging notion. To operationalize the term integration, I defined seven indicators, language proficiency, social interaction in daily life, psychological distance towards Swiss, satisfaction in Switzerland, the wish to stay in Switzerland, various identities, and self-assessment.

Language Proficiency includes the frequency of using the official language(s) at the universities in German-speaking Switzerland, which include both High German and Swiss German. This indicator measures the language proficiency from four aspects of High German, including listening, speaking, reading, and writing. It also measures the Swiss German skills

from a listening and speaking perspective, since Swiss German is not a written language. All of the criteria is measured with five scales from having “No knowledge at all”, “Poor”, “Fair”, “Good”, and “Very Good” knowledge. Language use frequency measures how often people use High German, Swiss German, English, and their mother language. It is indicated to leave the mother language blank if it is one of the above-mentioned three languages. Language use frequency is measured with five scales from “Never”, “Seldom”, “Sometimes”, “Often”, to “Always”.

The indicator **Social Interaction** measures the friend circle of participants and the frequency that they meet. Participants are asked to give the approximate number of friends they have from four categories, including their local Swiss friends, friends living in Switzerland who came from their home countries, friends living in their home country, and friends from other countries. Afterwards, participants are able to choose how frequently they meet friends during their free time, measured with six scales from: “Never”, “Rarely”, “Once or several times yearly”, “Once or several times monthly”, “Once or several times weekly”, to “Daily or almost daily”.

From the indicator **Psychological Distance** towards Swiss residents, participants are asked to choose how they feel if people from their home country have many Swiss friends or marry a Swiss, and if they themselves will have many Swiss friends or will marry a Swiss. In the above four situations, people can measure their feeling from “Very bad”, “Bad”, “Fair”, “Good”, to “Very good”.

The plan for participants to stay in Switzerland is measured under the indicator **The Wish to Stay**, which asks if participants wish to stay in Switzerland after graduation. It also asks about their naturalization wishes. Participants are asked to give responses from one to six whether they “Strongly disagree”, “Disagree”, “Partly agree”, “Agree”, or “Strongly agree” with the statements. They are also able to choose “No idea” and this will be recoded as system missing in the data analysis.

Apart from the personal interaction and individual wish, the **Satisfaction** with social structure is also introduced. Under this indicator, the satisfaction with current institute and university, living situation, Swiss media, migrant policy in Switzerland, the general attitude of Swiss to

migrants, and the Swiss society in general are measured with five scales from “Very dissatisfied” to “Very satisfied”. Participants are also able to choose “No idea”, which will be recoded as system missing in the data analysis.

How participants identify themselves is measured under the indicator **Identity**. Participants are asked to choose how much they feel that they belong as a member of a city, region, city, continent, or community, with five scales from “Not at all” to “Very much”. Participants are also able to choose “No idea”, which will be recoded as system missing in the data analysis.

Besides the entire defined indicator, **Self-Assessment** is introduced and enables participants to evaluate their integration extent from Not at all to Very well under five scales.

Table 25: Integration Indicators and Measurements

	Integration Indicator	Integration Variable	Measurements
1.	Language Competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High German Proficiency • Swiss German Proficiency • Language Use Frequency 	Five-point scales
2.	Social Interaction in Daily Life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Friends Circle Description • Meeting Friends Frequency 	Interval numbers
3.	Psychological Distance towards local residents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To have local residents as friends • To marry local residents 	Five-point scales
4.	Satisfaction in Host Society	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Institute and University • Living situation • Swiss media • Migration Policy in Switzerland • Attitude of Swiss towards migrants • The Swiss society 	Five-point scales
5.	The Wish to	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Plan to stay in Switzerland after 	Five-point

	Stay in Host Society	graduation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Swiss naturalization desire 	scales
6.	Various Identities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Belonging to a region in Switzerland or Switzerland • Belonging to a region in home country or home country • Belonging to a continent • Belonging to both Switzerland and home country • Cosmopolitan • Belonging to a overseas community of home country • Belonging to international community of migrants 	Five-point scales
7.	Self-assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integration level self-estimation 	Five-point scales

Media Use

Media use is examined in two media categories, mass media (including its online versions) and social media. Media use frequency is applied as the quantitative indicator of media use orientation for mass media. Both the media use frequency and the language preference are examined in social media use. The purpose of using media and interested news topics designed in a semi-closed question for mass media and social media consumptions. A qualitative question is involved to let participants name the three the most frequently used mass media and social media platforms, and this is then used to control the different understanding of the media categories.

Mass media is categorized into Swiss media, media from the home country, media from other countries, and ethnic media. Ethnic media refers to the media that is produced in Switzerland or Europe, but targeted at the readers with migration background(s) (eg: *Europe Chinese News*, *Corriere degli Italiani ZH*). However, whether Swiss media, media from other countries, and ethnic media are defined according to their production headquarters, or their language versions, or the editorial orientation were not explained because of two reasons. The

first reason was to prevent participants from getting annoyed by long introduction texts before the questions, and the second was to prevent different understanding of the introduction texts.

Table 26: Mass Media Use Types

Dimension	Sub-dimension	Indicators
Quantitative	Frequency	The frequency of use (6-point scales)
Purpose	Reasons of media selection	Nine reasons (multiple choices)
Content	Interested topics	Comparison between Swiss media and media from home country
Qualitative	Media Name	The name of three most frequently used media

Table 27: Social Media Use Types

Dimension	Sub-dimension	Indicators
Quantitative	Frequency	The frequency of use (Six-point scales)
Language	Social media use language	High German, Swiss German, English and mother language (Five-point scales)
Friend Circle	The friend number on social media	Local Swiss friends, Friends in Switzerland with the same migration background, Friends from home country and international friends
Content & Purposes	Reasons of using social media	13 reasons (Six-point scales)
Qualitative	Social Media Name	The name of three most frequently used social media

Social Demography and Study Background

The demographic information, such as age and gender, is also asked. Since all participants are registered students at universities, the study background, including the universities of attendance, study degrees, and major and main study language, are investigated as well.

Table 28: Social Demography and Study Background

Variable	Content	Question Type
Demography	Age	Closed question
	Gender	Closed question
University	Seven German-speaking universities in Switzerland	Closed question
Exchange student	If they are in an exchange program	Closed question
Study degree	BA, MA, Licentiate, Ph.D.	Closed question
Major	Main major	Closed question
	Minor major	
Main language of study	English, German, French, Italian, Other languages	Closed question

5.2 Methods

The survey was presented in the form of an online page developed through unipark.de. By clicking the link contained in the invitation email, participants were able to open the web page of the survey and could finish the survey by clicking on the proceed button.

Two months before the survey was opened, a pre-test was run to test the quality of the survey. The aim of the pre-test was focused on the logic of the questions, the variables, and analysis of the design, the meaning and language translation of both the English and German versions, and the functions and layout of the online survey. From the pre-test, I tried to optimize the operationalization of the survey rather than predict the general characteristics of the population. Therefore, 18 experts and 20 students with migration backgrounds were invited to test the survey. Between these pre-testers, I tried to avoid similar sources of participants, and I also tried to engage students from different majors and with various migration backgrounds. In the end, I received more than 100 comments, which helped greatly to improve the survey. All of the changes of the questionnaire were tracked.

This is a bilingual survey. The survey was first designed in English and then translated into German. The quality of translation was closely paid attention in order to ensure the quality of the survey. Mistranslation or translation inadequacies could have caused the wrong coding in the data collection or confuse respondents to the point that might understand the questions incorrectly (Harkness, Pennell, & Schoua-Glusberg, 2004, p. 454). Three aspects were put on high priority in translating, including matching the meaning and cultural difference, matching the scale, and the structure. For example, gender in German is translated to be neutral. However, since this survey aims at all ethnic groups in Switzerland, I do not deny the possibility of misunderstanding that might have been caused by cultural diversity.

5.3 Sampling

The average percentage of foreign students at six German-speaking universities was 21.6% in 2013. This was calculated from the foreign student percentage at each university, 37.1% of the total 18,178 students at ETH (ETH, 2013a), 25% of the total 7,325 students at the University of St.Gallen (Universität St.Gallen, 2013b), 23.6% of the total 12,551 students at the University of Basel (Universität Basel, 2013a), 18.1% of the total 25,715 students at the University of Zurich (Universität Zürich, 2013c), 14% of the total 16,989 students at the University of Bern (Universität Bern, 2013a), 5.3% of the total 2,874 students at the University of Lucerne (Universität Luzern, 2013a). The total population of foreign students was 18,054 people, compared to the population of all students which was 83,632 people. However, the statistics of foreign students do not differentiate the Swiss students with migration backgrounds, who are also counted as one of the target groups in this research. According to the Federal Office for Migration (FOM 2011b), the percentage of the permanent foreign resident population in Switzerland in 2010 was 22% of the total population. I do not easily assume that the percentage of Swiss students with migration backgrounds is the equivalent, but I suggest that with this benchmark the actual basic population of foreign students and students with migration backgrounds should be much larger than 22% of the total registered students.

The invitation email with the survey link was sent by administrative offices at each university, who have access to send out mass emails to all registered students. However, some universities can only send mass emails to students who agree to receive such email from a

university due to the privacy policy at the universities. This was the case at the University of Zurich, ETH, and the University of Fribourg. Some universities were able to send out mass emails to all registered students, which was the case at the University of Bern, the University of Lucerne, and the University of St. Gallen.

In order to increase the response rate, in both the email text invitation and the front page of the online survey, it was declared, “I offer participants who complete the survey the opportunity to win 2 gifts cards of 300CHF at any shop as wish.” This reward, within normal incentive amounts, was designed in concordance with the ethical code of the Philosophy Faculty of University of Zurich. Prizes are given to stimulate the motivations of participants, however, the chance to win a prize is low. This also partly prevents low quality responses where participants give dishonest answers or click through the survey to get a reward.

As from the official statistics at university, foreign students are reported while Swiss students with migration backgrounds are kept unknown. In order to reach the target population, the invitation email was sent to non-exclusive all student accounts. In fact, since universities do not distinguish email addresses by migration backgrounds, this is the only possible way to reach the population.

There were two steps used to control the correct target population. First, in both the invitation email and the introductory front page of the online survey, the definition of survey participants “This survey focuses on the media use of students with migration backgrounds in Switzerland, which means people either hold foreign nationalities, or moved to Switzerland on their own, or parent(s) moved to Switzerland” was written. Second, participants were asked to give their migration details, which include the birthplaces and first and second nationalities of participants, their fathers, and mothers. In the final data analysis, the cases where all of the birthplaces and nationalities of participants, their fathers, and their mothers was in Switzerland (and with no other nationalities) were deleted.

Although this closed email distribution method can ensure to the greatest extent that currently registered students at universities can receive the survey invitation and also prevent any irrelevant population, it will still cast a doubt on the representation of the population. But still, to reach the target population it is impossible to use probability sampling due to the information privacy policy and demographic statistics of students at universities. Swiss students with migration backgrounds are not statistically recorded by each university and

moreover, it is impossible to obtain the complete mailing list as a sample frame to conduct probability sampling due to the data protection policies at universities.

But there is no proof to show that this is a biased procedure, because the response of the survey depends on the voluntary reply from the potential population. Due to the absence of official statistics of Swiss students with migration backgrounds, this population is taken as a hidden group. The sampling procedure of defining participants in the invitation letter and on the front page of the survey can be considered to be a respondent-driven sampling. This means, people who fit the respondent criteria and are willing to fill out the survey will take part in the study. This excludes the people who try to deny or hide their migration backgrounds.

5.4 Field Report

The survey was presented as an online survey. An invitation email containing the link to the survey was sent through university administrative accounts to the registered students at the corresponding university. The survey was launched from the 16th April, 2013 to the 30th June, 2013.

The invitation email was sent through the Director's Office (Rektoratsdienst) on the 16th April to 7,242 students who are registered at the University of Zurich from Bachelor, Master, and Ph.D. students, and who agreed to receive public emails from the university. There were 25,621 actual registered students at that moment in time. On the same day, the invitation email was sent from the Faculty of Economics and Social Sciences to 1,135 German-speaking students who were registered at this faculty at the University of Fribourg. The actual registered students at the University of Fribourg were 9,000 at that moment, but most of the students were French-speaking. Another invitation email was sent through the Student Administration Office on the 22nd April to 6,214 students (actual registered students at that moment: 17,000) registered at ETH (Swiss Federal Institute of Technology Zurich) from Bachelor, Master, and Ph.D. students, and who agreed to receive public email from the university. A university newsletter SOL (Studierendenorganisation Luzern) that contained a short text of the survey invitation and the link to the survey was first published through the Academic Services at the University of Lucerne on the 19th April on the SOL Facebook page and then on the 24th May to all registered 2,520 students via email. Another invitation email was sent through the Director's Office (Rektorat) to all registered 5,315 students at the

University of St. Gallen firstly on the 6th May and a second reminder email on the 13th May. Another invitation email was sent through Registration Office (immatrikulation) to all registered 12,962 students at the University of Bern on the 7th May. The last invitation email was sent through the Communication and Marketing Office to all registered 15,949 students (actual registered students at that moment 12,341) at the University of Basel on the 14th May. Since the email account of Ph.D. students at the University of Basel is included in the employee mailing list, the invitation email was sent to both the student (Bachelor and Master) mailing list and the employee mailing list. Therefore, the number of email receivers is higher than the actual Bachelor, Master, and Ph.D. students. The employee participants were deleted in the following data analysis.

In the end, 5,189 people opened the survey link, 4,308 people proceeded after seeing the first page, and 1,930 people finished the entire survey. After having filtered out Swiss participants without migration backgrounds². The total participants taken into analysis was 1,756.

² According to the criteria that the birth places of participants, or of their parents are in Switzerland, the nationality of participants and their parents are Swiss and with no second nationality or the one who failed to provide his or her mother language.

Chapter Three: Findings and Results

*“Migration throws objects, identities and ideas into flux.”
(Kobena Mercer: Exiles, Diasporas & Strangers, 2008).*

6. Analysis Model

The data analysis was conducted in four parts. The whole analysis model, especially the analysis process of integration and media use, referred to the analysis model of the media use and integration of Turkish immigrants in Germany (Trebbe, 2007).

First, all participants were categorized in to three groups: Swiss students, German-speaking students, and non-German-speaking students according to their nationality and mother language. All of the social demographic information including migration backgrounds and the values of integration indicators are presented as *Descriptive Data*, such as frequency, mean, and standard deviation. The differences among the three groups are described and illustrated in tables and figures. The inter-group differences are compared with the average results of the total participants as well.

Second, integration factors were generated through *Factor Analysis*. Because each integration indicator is designed with several variables, the variables that refer to the same integration indicator are condensed. This helps, to build up the dominant components of each integration indicator and explain the main factors of integration indicators, but it also simplifies the process of defining the integration agglomeration. After all variables that refer to integration were reduced to certain factors, *Hierarchic Cluster Analysis* and *K-means Cluster Analysis* were used to find out the optimized integration clusters. In the end, *Bivariate Correlation Analysis* and *ANOVA* were both used to interpret integration clusters according to the integration factors.

Third, both mass media and social media use behaviors were illustrated in comparison to three groups in *Descriptive Data*. Furthermore, media use behaviors are discussed in relation to integration clusters through *ANOVA* and *Crosstable*. In more detail, media use behaviors were analyzed via *Correlation Analysis*, to show its correlation with specific integration factors.

Last, in order to discuss the role of media use in the integration process of migrants, social demographics, media use behaviors, and integration clusters were analyzed in *Ordinal Regression* to show their correlation and the strength among each other.

7. The Sample

Both the social demographic information and migration backgrounds of all participants are illustrated in this section. All participants are described and compared in three groups according to their age, gender, university, study level, study language, birthplace, nationality, migration reasons, family members in Switzerland, and their living years in Switzerland.

7.1 Demography and Study Backgrounds

Ethnic Groups

In the following, I will illustrate the demographics of all participants. First, participants are divided into three groups for comparison, Swiss students, German-speaking students, and non-German-speaking students. Swiss students are selected from participants whose first or second nationality is Swiss, German-speaking students are selected from who have other nationalities but their first or second mother language is German, and non-German-speaking students are selected from the people who have other nationalities and whose first or second mother language is not German. These three groups are almost equally distributed with Swiss students at 31.8% (558 participants), German-speaking students at 35.4% (621 participants), and non-German-speaking students at 32.9% (577 participants).

Table 29: Three Ethnic Groups

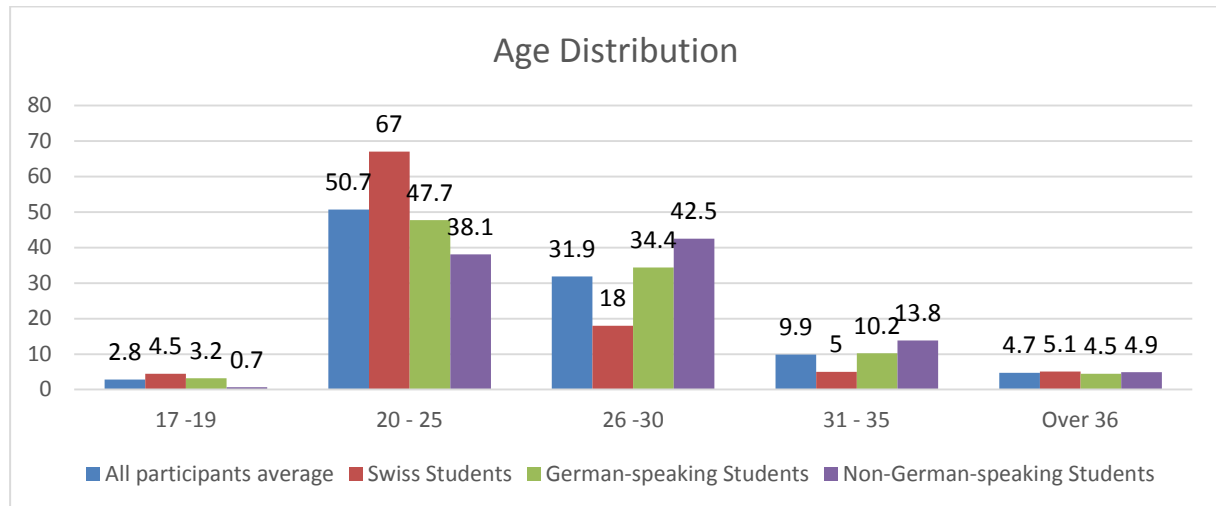
Three Ethnic Groups	Swiss Students	German-speaking Students	Non-German-speaking Students	Total
Frequency	558	621	577	1756
Percentage	31.80%	35.40%	32.90%	100%

Age

More than 90% of the participants are between 20 to 35 years old. Among that, more than half of the participants are between 20 to 25 years old, and around one third are between 26

to 30 years old. Among the age distribution in three groups, there are slight differences. Swiss students are comparatively the youngest with 67% participants being among 20 to 25 years old. However, since the majority of participants are young adults, age is not taken as a comparison standard in this study.

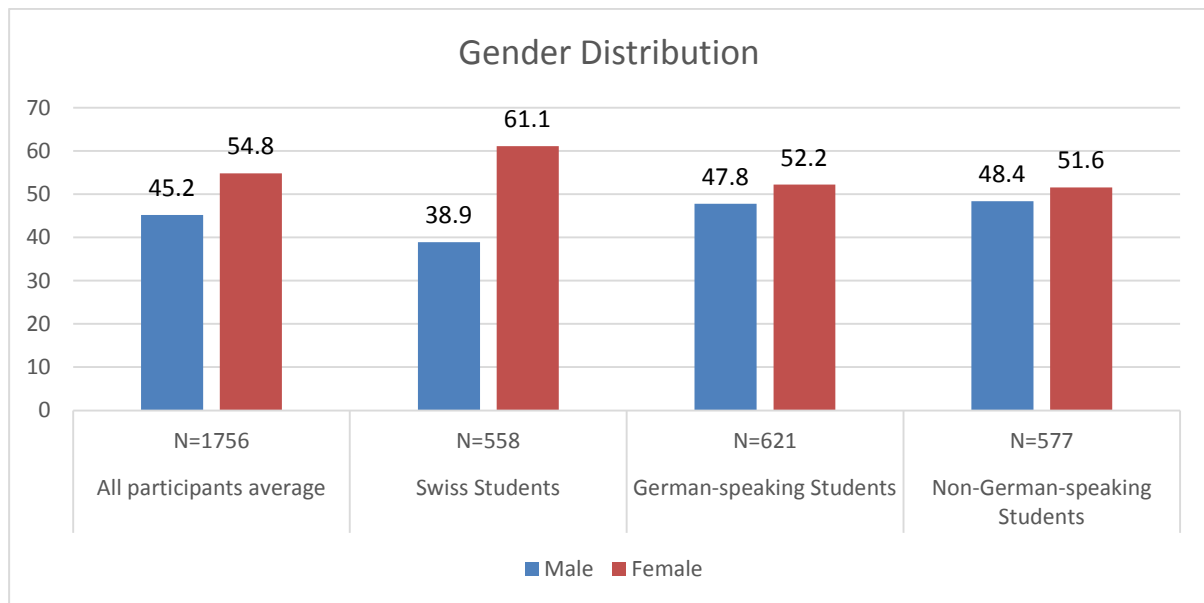
Figure 16: Age Distribution



Gender

The gender of the participants is relatively evenly distributed, with an average of 45.2% male and 54.8% female respondents. Among Swiss students, female is the leading gender group with 61.1%, but in the other two groups, gender is more evenly distributed. The gender distribution is different from university to university. The average female student percentage at the six German-speaking universities was 48.2% in 2013. This is calculated from the female student percentage at each university, where females made up 30.6% of the total 18,178 students at ETH (ETH, 2013b), 31.8% of the total 7,325 students at the University of St.Gallen (Universität St.Gallen, 2013b), 54.2% of the total 12,551 students at the University of Basel (Universität Basel, 2013b), 55% of the total 16,989 students at the University of Bern (Universität Bern, 2013b) , 56.8% of the total 25,715 students at the University of Zurich (Universität Zürich, 2013a) , and 57% of the total 2,874 students at the University of Lucerne (Universität Luzern, 2013b). According to the actual female student percentage rates at universities, female participants are slightly over represented, but in the acceptable range.

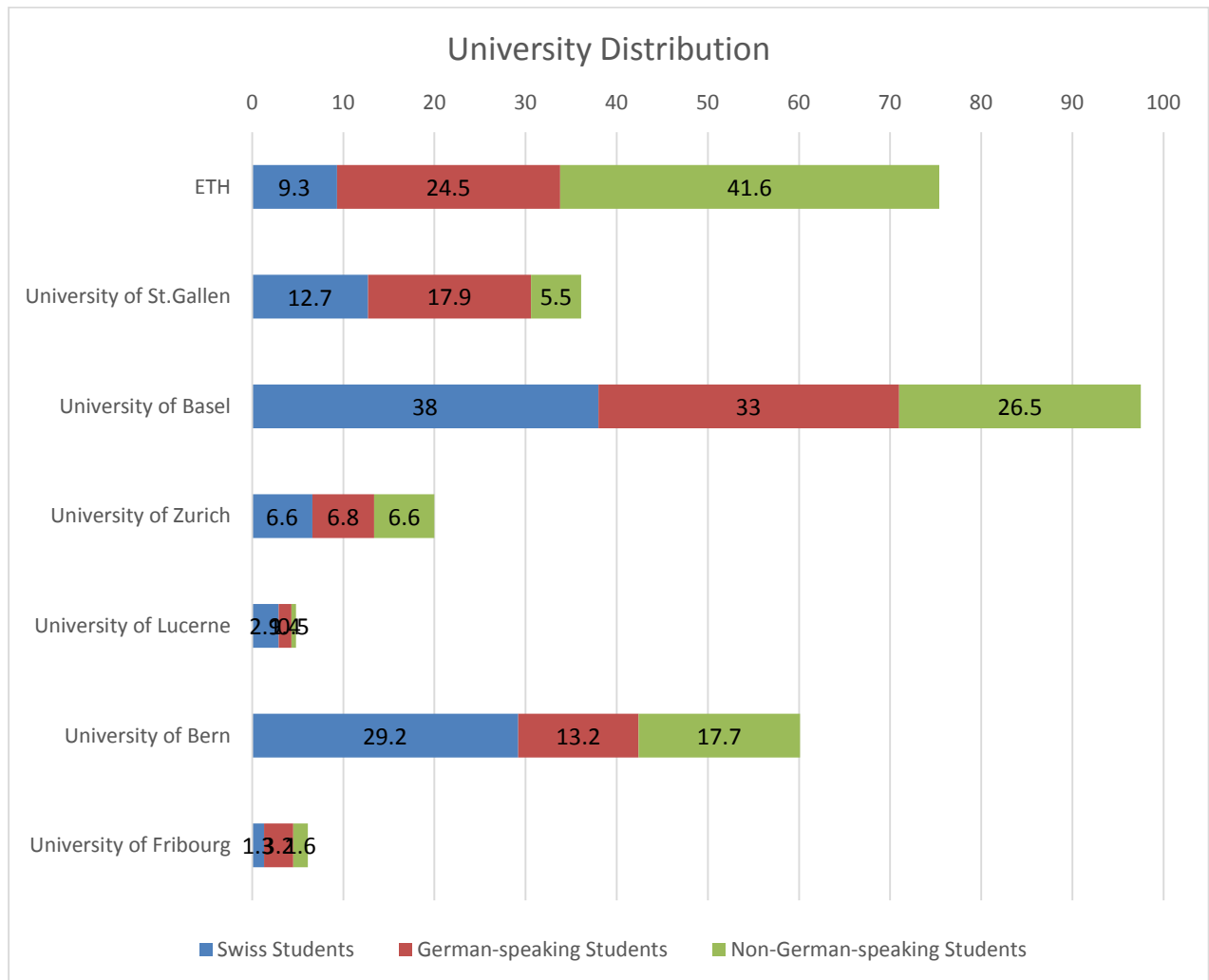
Figure 17: Gender Distribution



University Distribution

In 2013, ETH was the most international university in all of German-speaking universities, with 37.1% of its total students being foreign (ETH, 2013b). In the survey among the participants from ETH, 41.6% of students are non-German-speaking foreign students, while Swiss students are the fewest at 9.3%. Comparatively, there are a large amount of Swiss students with migration backgrounds at the University of Basel (38%) and the University of Bern (29.2%). German-speaking students are quite evenly distributed at the seven universities.

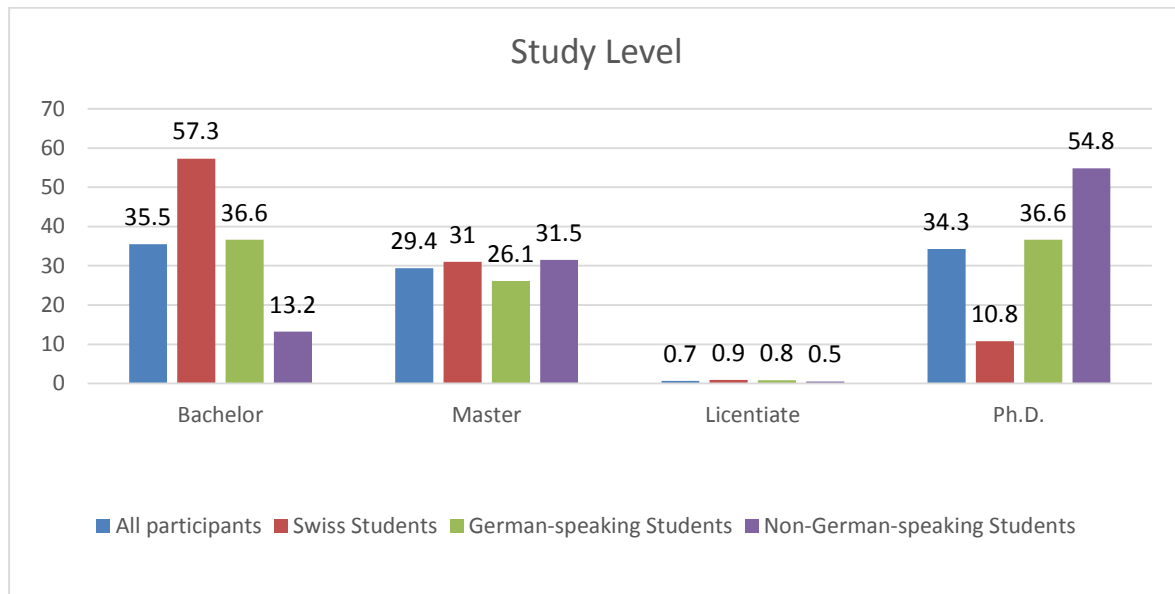
Figure 18: University Distribution



Study Level

Most Swiss students are in the Bachelor (57.3%) and Master (31%) program, while on the contrary, more than half of non-German-speaking students are enrolled in the Ph.D. (54.8%) program. Comparatively, German-speaking students are approximately evenly scattered in the Bachelor (36.6%), Master (26.1%), and Ph.D. (36.6%) programs. Students are asked if they are in an exchange or Erasmus program at Swiss universities, but only 5 (0.8%) of German-speaking students and 13 (2.3%) of non-German-speaking students are in this case.

Figure 19: Study Level



The existing findings differ from each other on whether education levels influence the integration of migrants. The study on Chinese immigrants in the U.S. showed that the subjects' educational attainment did not necessarily reflect their acculturation motivation and acculturation level. Ph.D. degree holders were not necessarily better acculturated than Master's degree holder, and Master's degree holders were not necessarily better acculturated than people with a Bachelor's degree (Hwang & He, 1999, p. 15). However, in a study of rural immigrants in an urban city in China, educational background had a significantly positive affect on the identity integration, and it explained that it was related with the local residence regulation. The higher the educational background was, the easier one can obtain the local residence permit and therefore find stable work (Zhang & Lei, 2008, p. 121).

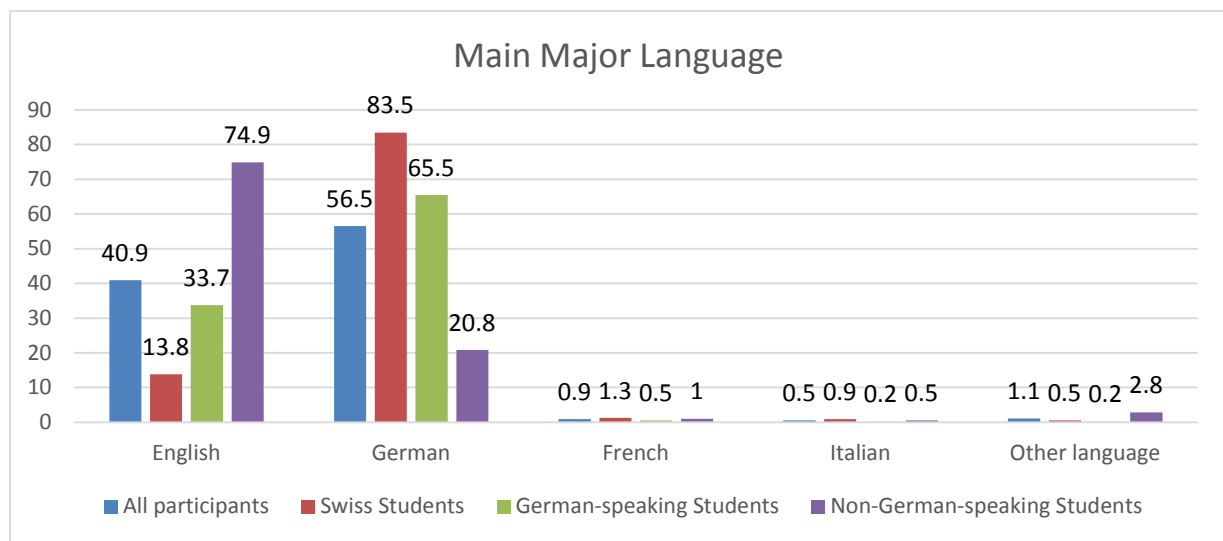
Since all of the students are in university programs, their educational backgrounds are considered to be high. The advantage of a higher university level is not clearly regulated in either Swiss migration law or the Swiss labor market. This study will not compare the population from different university programs.

Study Program Language

German as the language of main major is the first choice of most Swiss students. 83.5% of Swiss students choose German as the language that they study in, in comparison to the 65.5% of German-speaking students, and 20.8% of non-German-speaking students that made the

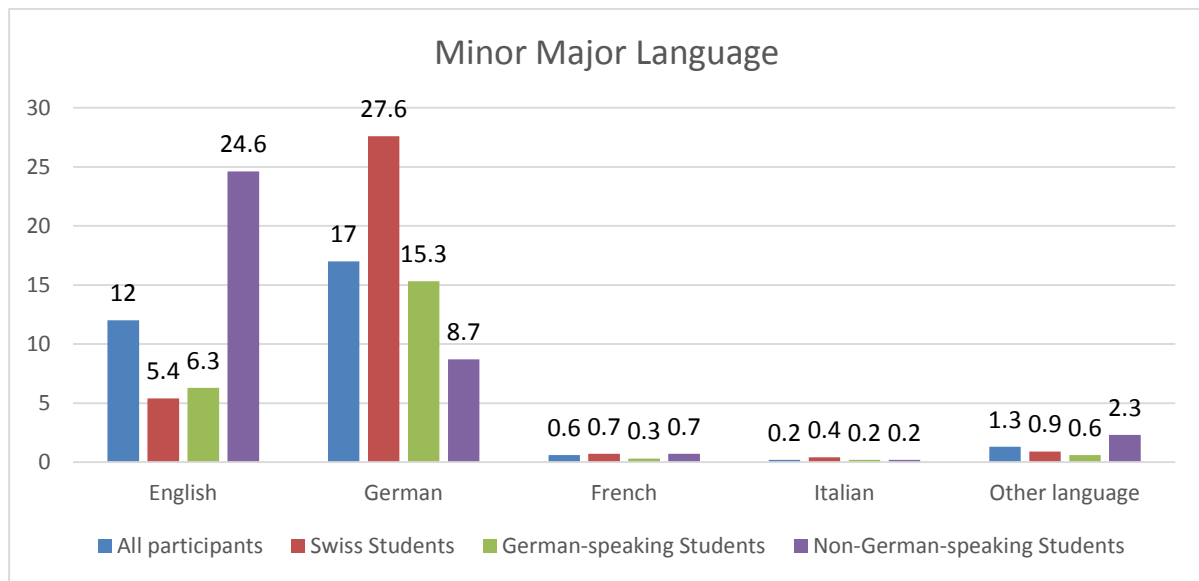
same choice. In contrast, English is most favorable among 75% of non-German-speaking students, secondly by 34% of German-speaking students, and the least by 14% of Swiss students. The other two Swiss official languages, French and Italian, and other languages are seldom used as study languages. Less than 1% among the three student groups choose them as the language of main major, except for 2.8% of non-German-speaking students which chose “Other language” as the language of their main major.

Figure 20: Main Major Language



The results showed that most students do not have a minor major. 69% of students on average do not have a minor major, which is quite evenly distributed among Swiss students (65.1%), non-German-speaking students (63.6%), and German-speaking students (77.3%). Among the students who have minor majors, German is again the most favorable language among 28% of Swiss students, 15% of German-speaking students, and 8.7% of non-German-speaking students. English is the most popular among 25% of non-German-speaking students, 6% of German-speaking students, and 5.4% of Swiss students. Students rarely choose other languages.

Figure 21: Minor Major Language



Erasmus or Exchange Students

When asked if they are at a Swiss university because of an Erasmus or exchange study program, only 18 (1%) out of 1,758 students choose “Yes”.

7.2 Migration Backgrounds

The migration backgrounds of participants are investigated thoroughly. Their birthplaces and first and second nationalities were asked. In order to present their migration backgrounds, the birthplaces, the first and second nationalities of their mother, father, and spouse (only if they moved to Switzerland because of the spouse) were collected as well.

The Birthplaces of Participants

The birthplaces of participants are very scattered in every continent, especially among non-German-speaking foreign students. The birthplaces, which are quoted by more than 1% participants, are listed below. As it shows in the table, many Swiss students and German-speaking students were born in Switzerland, Germany, and other European countries.

Swiss students were mainly born in Switzerland (65.8%), some in Germany (4.7%), and some in Kosovo (2.5%). Most of the German-speaking students were born in Germany (71.5%), some were born in Switzerland (8.4%), and some in Austria (5%). These three

places make up 85% of the birthplaces of German-speaking students. Obviously, German-born participants are the majority of the German-speaking group.

Compared with the other two groups, the birthplaces of non-German-speaking students are much more dispersedly distributed. Some of them were born in Europe, for example in Italy (7.1%), Poland (4.3%), France (4%), Russia (4%), Greece (3.5%), Luxembourg (2.6%), and Switzerland (2.6%); others were born in North and South America, for example in the U.S. (4.2%), Brazil (2.3%), and Mexico (1.9%); some were born in Asia, for example in China (6.1%), India (4.3%), and Iran (3.3%).

Table 30: Birthplace (in Percentage)

	Swiss Students N=558	German-speaking Students N=621	Non-German- speaking Students N=577
Austria		5.0	
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1.4		
Brazil	1.1		2.3
Canada			1.2
China			6.1
Colombia			1.0
France			4.0
Germany	4.7	71.5	1.2
Greece			3.5
Hungary			1.2
India			4.3
Iran			3.3
Italy	1.1	1.3	7.1
Luxembourg			2.6
Mexico			1.9
Netherlands			1.9
Kosovo	2.5		
Macedonia	1.6		
Poland			4.3
Portugal			1.4
Romania			1.9
Russia			4.0
Serbia			1.2
Spain	1.1		1.4
Sweden			1.2

Switzerland	65.8	8.4	2.6
Turkey			1.9
Ukraine			1.4
United Kingdom	1.3		1.2
United States of America			4.2
Missing	3.0	5.6	6.4
Other countries	16.4	8.2	25.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

As assumed, the distribution of birthplaces besides three German-speaking countries (Switzerland, Germany, and Austria) is very disperse. Statistically, it is unnecessary to compare each country with another if the population is very small. Therefore, all of the non-German-speaking countries and nationalities are recoded according to their corresponding continents: Asia, Europe, North America, South America, Africa, and Oceania. The three German-speaking countries are coded separately. Thus, the birthplaces of all participants are distributed as seen in the following table:

Table 31: Birth Places after Recoding

	Swiss Students		German-speaking Students		Non-German speaking Students	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Asia	37	6.6	13	2.1	153	26.5
Europe*	72	12.9	41	6.6	254	44
North America	5	0.9	3	0.5	49	8.5
South America	22	3.9	2	0.3	36	6.2
Africa	6	1.1	0	0	18	3.1
Oceania	2	0.4	0	0	8	1.4
Switzerland	367	65.8	52	8.4	15	2.6
Germany	26	4.7	444	71.5	7	1.2
Austria	4	0.7	31	5	0	0
Valid Total	541	97	586	94.4	540	93.6
Missing	17	3	35	5.6	37	6.4
Total	558	100	621	100	577	100

*Europe: all the other countries in European continent except Switzerland, Germany, and Austria.

This recode mainly solved the description problem of non-German-speaking students. The table above shows that the majority of non-German-speaking students (44%) were born in

Europe (except Switzerland, Germany, and Austria), Asia (26.5%), North America (8.5%), South America (6.2%), Africa (3.1%), and Oceania (1.4%).

The Nationalities of Participants

The table below shows the first and second nationalities of all participants. Swiss students are defined as people who have either first or second Swiss nationality, as there is no Swiss nationality in the other two groups. Compared to the other two groups, apparently most Swiss students (72.6%) have two nationalities. This rate is extremely higher than the other two groups, where only around 10% of them have a second nationality. Among Swiss students, 11.6% of them have their first or second nationality in Asian countries, 38.9% of them have their first or second nationality in European countries (except Switzerland, Germany, and Austria), and 11% of them have their first or second nationality in Germany.

Among German-speaking students, the majority has German nationality (80%) and the rest have European (15.3%) and Austrian (7.3%) nationalities. More than half of the non-German-speaking students have European nationality (53%), 27.3% of them have Asian nationality; and 17.6% of them have North or South American nationality.

Table 32: First and Second Nationalities of Participants (in Percentage)

	Swiss Students		German-speaking Students		Non-German-speaking Students	
	First Nationality	Second Nationality	First Nationality	Second Nationality	First Nationality	Second Nationality
Asia	4.1	7.5	2.3	0.6	26.3	1
Europe	13.6	25.3	10.3	5	48	4.9
North America	0.5	1.6	0.2	0.5	9	2.1
South America	2.7	2	0.2	0.6	6.2	0.3
Africa	0.2	1.8	0.2	0.3	3.6	0.7
Oceania	0.2	0.5	0	0.2	1.4	0
Switzerland	72.8	27.2	0	0	0	0
Germany	5.6	5.4	78.1	1.6	2.4	0
Austria	0.2	1.3	6.3	1	0.3	0.2
Valid Total	99.8	72.6	97.4	9.8	97.4	9.2
Missing	0.2	27.4	2.6	90.2	2.6	90.8
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

*Europe: all the other countries in European continent except Switzerland, Germany, and Austria.

The Birthplaces of Mother, Father, and Spouse

The migration backgrounds of participants were investigated, which are indicated by the birthplaces of the mother and father. The birthplace of the spouse is only asked when participants moved to Switzerland because of their spouse.

Among Swiss students, only 26% of their mothers or fathers were born in Switzerland. Around 32% of their mothers or fathers were born in Europe, and 21% of them were born in Asia. Among German-speaking students, around 69% of mothers and fathers were born in Germany, 14% were born in Europe, 6.5% were born in Austria, and around 6% were born in Asia. Almost half of the mothers or fathers of non-German-speaking students were born in Europe, almost 30% of them were born in Asia, and nearly 15% of them were born in America.

The results show that very few participants moved to Switzerland because of their spouse, and actually, less than 2% of Swiss students and less than 4% of German-speaking students chose this. There are slightly more non-German-speaking students that chose this, where 10% of them moved to Switzerland because of their spouse, but only 1.4% of their spouse were born in Switzerland. The results of first and second nationalities of the participants' mother, father, and spouse are very similar to the results from the birthplaces, and therefore they are not illustrated separately.

Table 33: Birthplaces of Mother, Father, and Spouse (in Percentage)

	Swiss Students			German-speaking nations			Non-German-speaking nations		
	Mother	Father	Spouse	Mother	Father	Spouse	Mother	Father	Spouse
Asia	21.3	20.3	0	5.3	6.3	0.3	28.8	29.5	2.1
Europe	31.7	32.6	0.4	14.8	14	0.6	49.2	48.7	3.8
North America	1.4	2.2	0.2	0.6	0.5	0	8.1	7.8	0.7
South America	4.8	4.3	0	0.8	0.8	0	6.8	6.6	0.5
Africa	1.1	2.7	0	0.3	1	0	4	4.3	0
Oceania	0.2	0.4	0	0	0	0	1	1.2	0
Switzerland	25.6	25.8	1.1	1.4	1.3	0	0	0.3	1.4
Germany	9.9	9.5	0	68.1	68.9	2.6	0.9	1	1.4
Austria	0.7	0.7	0	6.3	6.8	0.3	0.2	0	0

Valid Total	96.8	98.4	1.6	97.7	99.5	3.9	99	99.5	9.9
Missing	3.2	1.6	98.4	2.3	0.5	96.1	1	0.5	90.1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

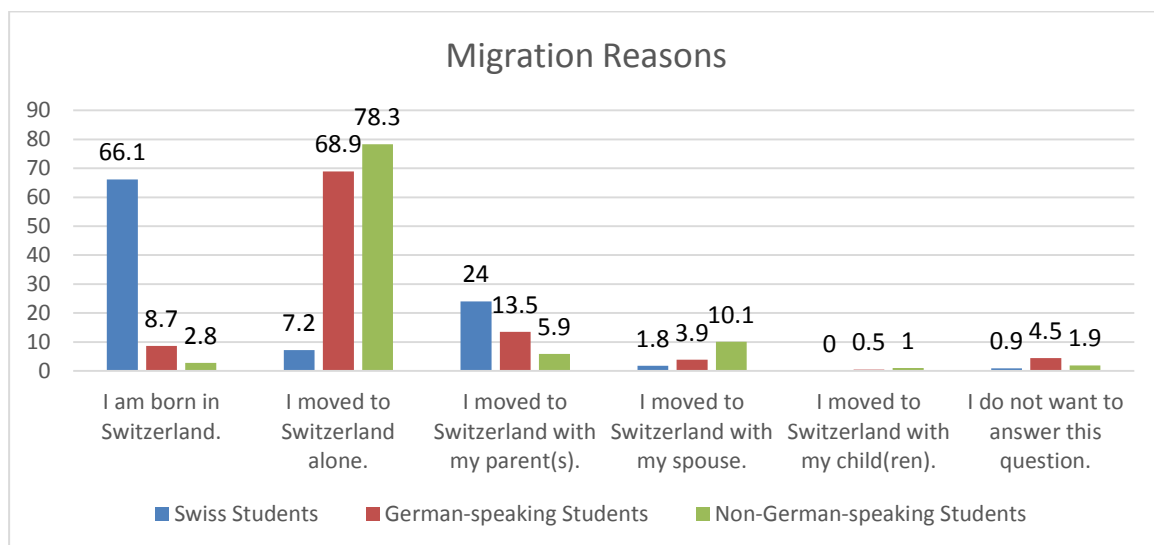
*Europe: all the other countries in European continent except Switzerland, Germany, and Austria.

*Spouse: the birthplace of spouse is only asked when participants chose that they moved to Switzerland because of the spouse

Migration Reasons

Among Swiss students, 90% of them were either born in Switzerland (66 %) or moved to Switzerland with their parents (24%). In comparison, most foreign students moved to Switzerland alone, 68.9% of German-speaking students and 78.3% of non-German-speaking students. As mentioned above, a relatively high percent (10%) of non-German-speaking students came to Switzerland with a spouse, in comparison to Swiss students (2 %) and German-speaking students (4%).

Figure 22: Migration Reasons

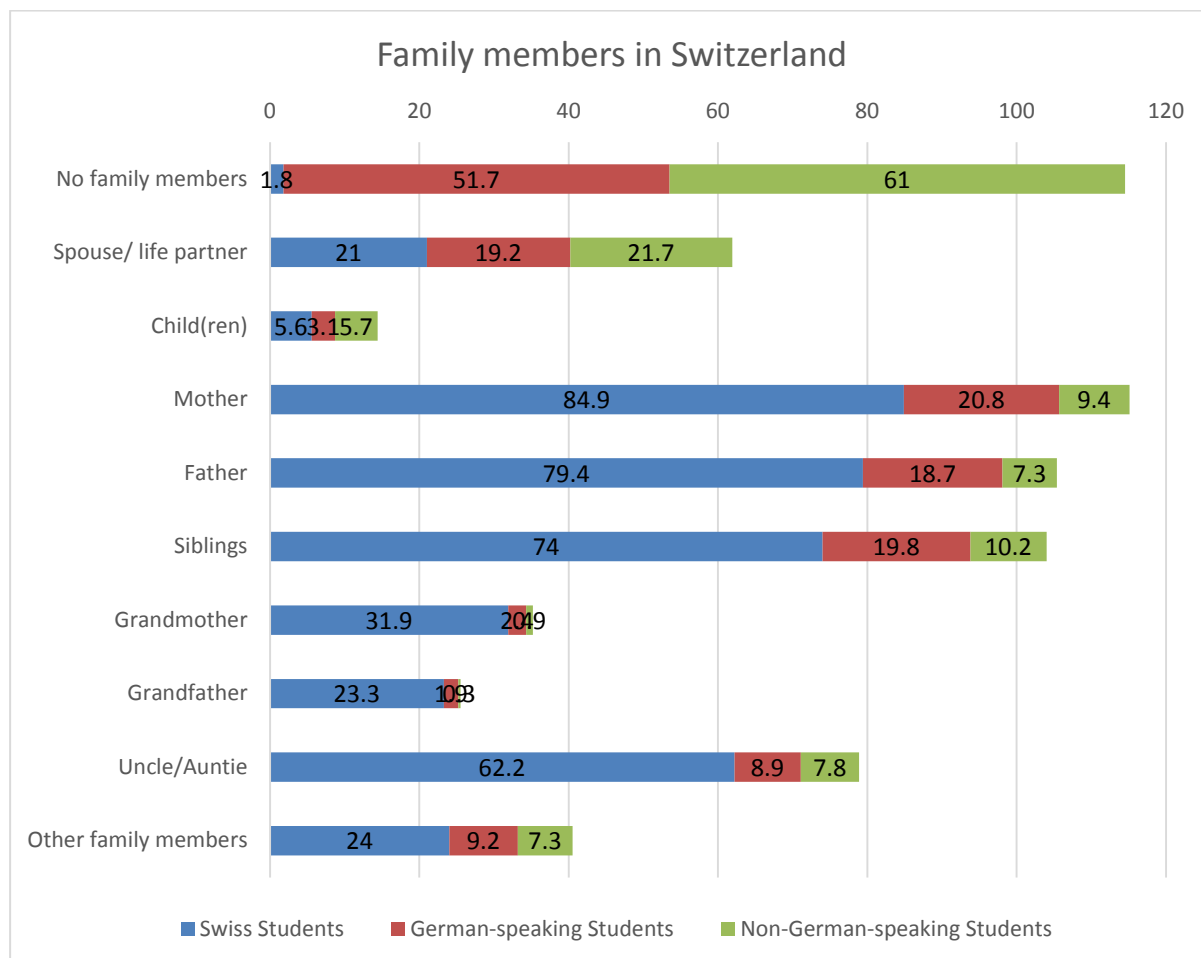


Family Members in Switzerland

In accordance with the above migration reasons, most Swiss students have family members in Switzerland, such as a mother (85%), father (80%), sibling(s) (74%), or uncle or auntie (62%). More than half of the German-speaking students have no family members in Switzerland and the rest have a spouse or life partner (19%), parents (around 20%), or

sibling(s) (around 20%). 60% of non-German-speaking students have no family members in Switzerland and 22% of them have a spouse or life partner in Switzerland.

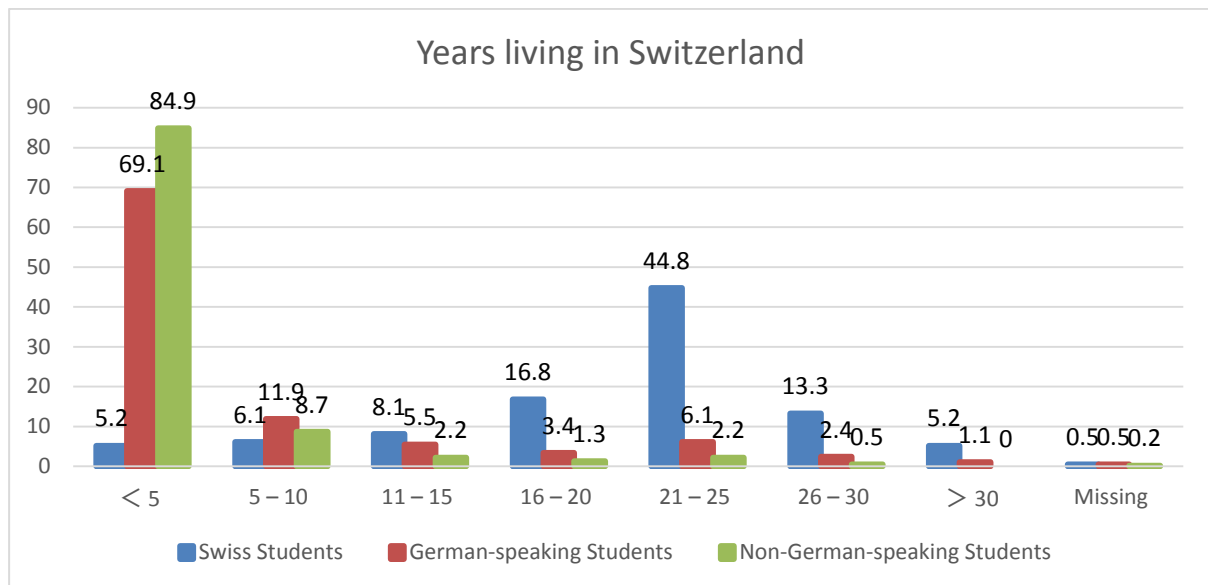
Figure 23: Family members in Switzerland (multiple choices in Percentage)



Years living in Switzerland

Most Swiss students have lived in Switzerland for a long time; 45% have been here for 21 to 25 years, 17% for 16 to 20 years, and 13% for 26 to 30 years. Most other migrants have been living in Switzerland for less than 5 years, with 69% among German-speaking students and 85% among non-German-speaking students.

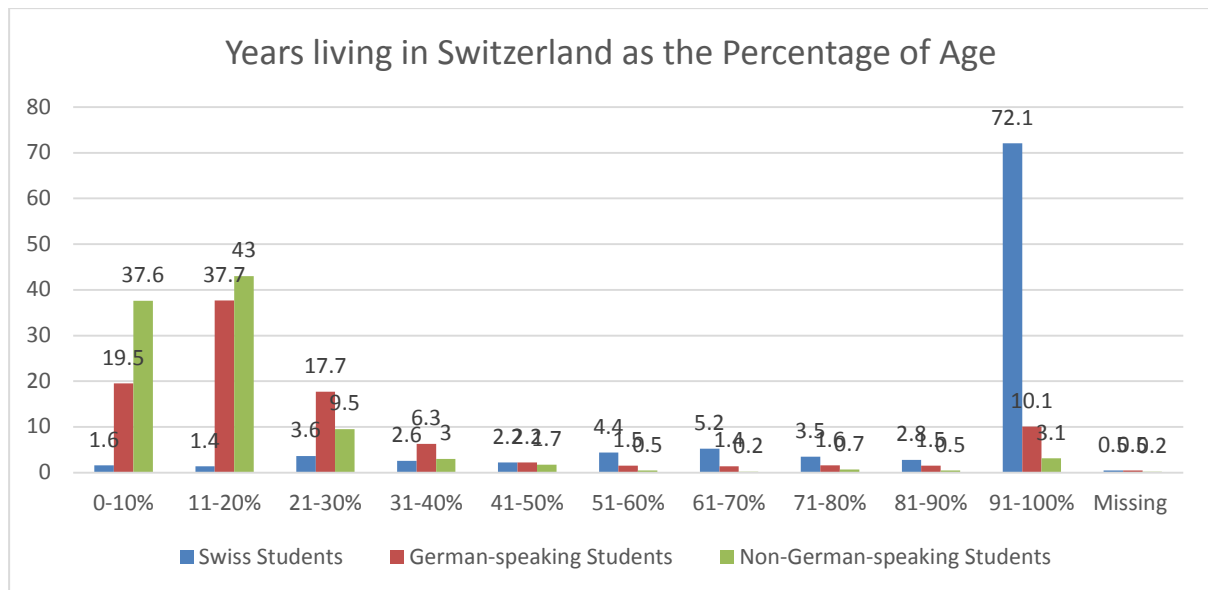
Figure 24: Years living in Switzerland (in Percentage)



Some scholars argued that not only the years living in a host society but also the age when an immigrant arrived in the host society and working environment appeared to be important (Hwang & He, 1999). This study does not assume that migration is a one-time activity that once migrants arrive in a host society that they never leave. On the other hand, this study emphasizes the percentage of the years living in the host society over the life-time. In the following figure, I divided the age of each participants by their years living in Switzerland and therefore found the percentage of the years lived in Switzerland, in relation to the percentage of the entire life-time.

Apparently, over 70% of Swiss students spend 90-100% of their life-time living in Switzerland, while only 10% of German-speaking students and 3% of non-German-speaking students are in the same case. The majority of foreign students lived in Switzerland for less than 20% of their life-time. 20% of German-speaking students and 38% of non-German-speaking students lived in Switzerland for less than 10% of their life-time. 38% of German-speaking students and 43% of non-German-speaking students lived in Switzerland for 11-20% of their life-time.

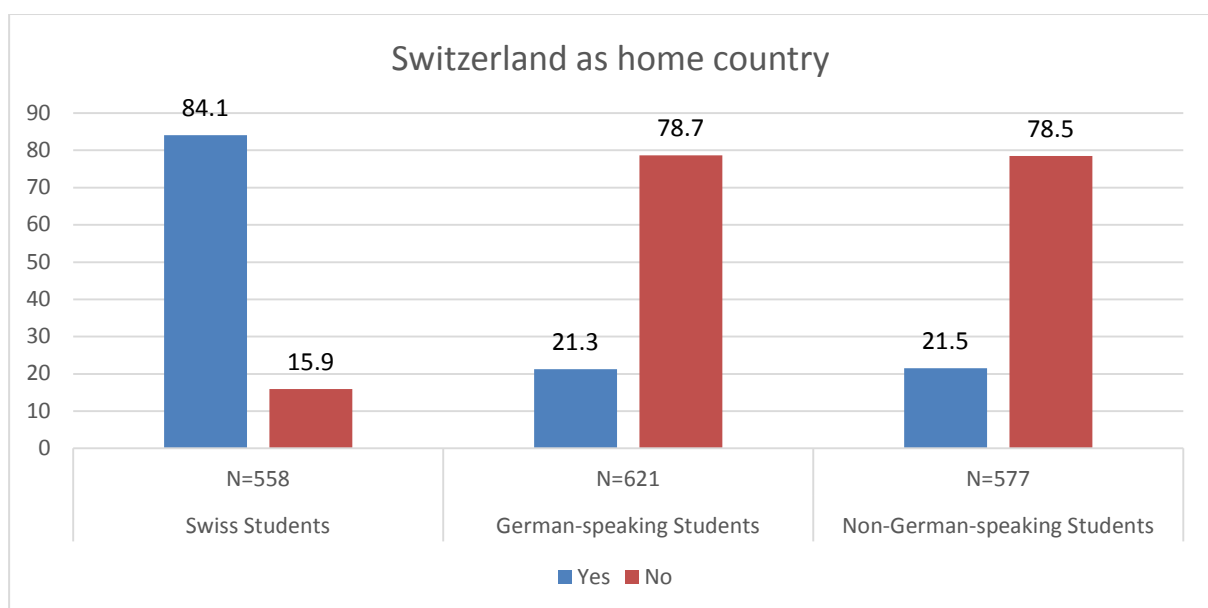
Figure 25: Years living in Switzerland as the Percentage of Life Time (in Percentage)



Switzerland as home country

When asked if one would consider Switzerland as home country, 85% of Swiss students choose “Yes”. Surprisingly, more than 20% of foreign students would also take Switzerland as their home country and this rate does not differ between German and non-German speaking students.

Figure 26: Do you consider Switzerland as your home country (in Percentage)?



7.3 Conclusion

In conclusion, there are no evident differences among the three compared groups in social demographics in regarding of age and gender. There are mostly young adults. More than 90% of the participants are between 20 to 35 years old and more than half of the participants are between 20 to 25 years old. The gender is relatively evenly distributed, with an average of 45.2% male and 54.8% female respondents.

The language preference of the study program is obvious. German is most favorable by 83.5% of Swiss students, and English is the most favorable among 75% of non-German-speaking students. The study level is diverse as well. More than half of Swiss students are in the Bachelor program and one third are in Master program, while more than half of non-German-speaking students are in Ph.D. program. Comparatively, German-speaking students are approximately evenly distributed in Bachelor, Master, and Ph.D. programs. Compared with the other two groups, many more Swiss students have dual nationalities (73%).

The percentage of the years living in Switzerland, in regard to age, is greatly different among students. Over 70% of Swiss students spend 90-100% of their life-time living in Switzerland, while only 10% of German-speaking students and 3% of non-German-speaking students are in this case.

According to the demographic features of participants in this study, the migration backgrounds such as, nationality, birthplace, language proficiency, and language use preference will be discussed intensively with reference to their media use behaviors and integration situations.

8. Integration

All of the questions, designed for the seven integration indicators will be described and illustrated in this section. The seven integration indicators are Language Competence, Social Interaction in Daily Life, Psychological Distance towards Swiss Residents, Satisfaction in Switzerland, The Wish to Stay in Switzerland, Various Identities, and Integration Self-assessment. For each indicator, *Factor Analysis* is used to generate more simplified integration components.

8.1 Language Competence

There are three elements in the language indicator: High German Proficiency, Swiss German Proficiency, and Daily Language Use Frequency.

High German Proficiency

Because of the mother language, both Swiss students and German-speaking students have a very high self-evaluation in High German, the official language at the universities, in all aspects (Mean: above 4.8/5.0). However, non-German-speaking students have lower German skills (Mean: around 3.0/5.0) and the difference between individuals are quite high (Std: over 1).

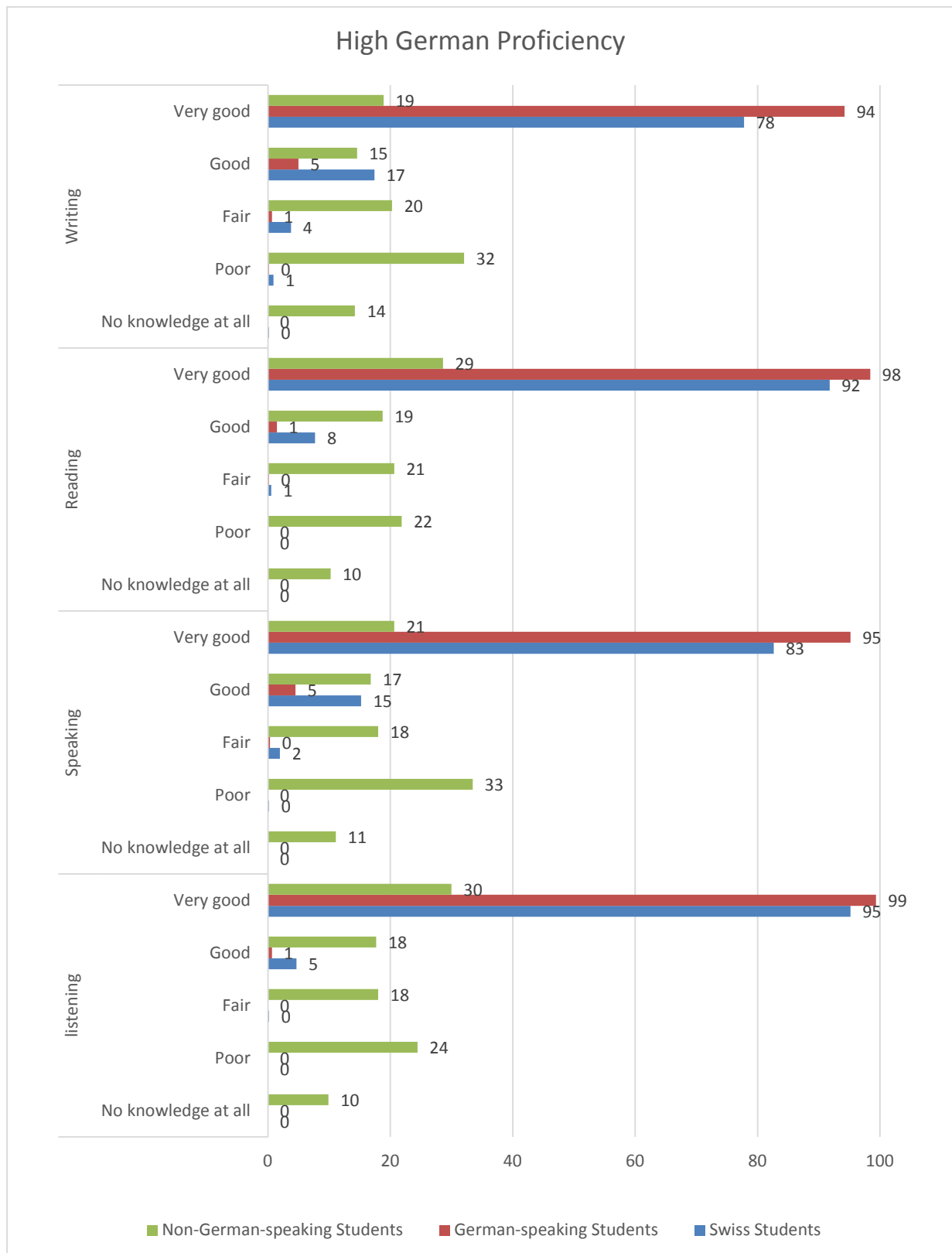
Table 34: High German Proficiency (Mean/ Standard Deviation)

	Swiss Students N=558	German-speaking Students N=621	Non-German- speaking Students N=577
Listening	4.95 (.227)	4.99 (.080)	3.33 (1.381)
Speaking	4.80 (.457)	4.95 (.235)	3.02 (1.332)
Reading	4.91 (.302)	4.98 (.144)	3.34 (1.360)
Writing	4.72 (.595)	4.93 (.293)	2.92 (1.337)

Scale: 1 = No knowledge at all, 2 = Poor, 3 = Fair, 4 = Good, 5 = Very good

In greater detail, 99.4% of German-speaking students rank themselves “very good” in High German proficiency for Listening (cp. 95.2% Swiss Students, 30% non-German-speaking nations), 98.2% in speaking (cp. 82.6% Swiss students, 20.6% non-German-speaking students), 98.4% in reading (cp. 91.8% Swiss students, 28.6% non-German-speaking students) and 94.2% in writing (cp. 77.8% Swiss students, 18.9% non-German-speaking students).

Figure 27: High German Proficiency



Language, in integration theories, is considered to be one of the most important indicators. The acquisition of language is understood as the outcome of the interaction of immigrants'

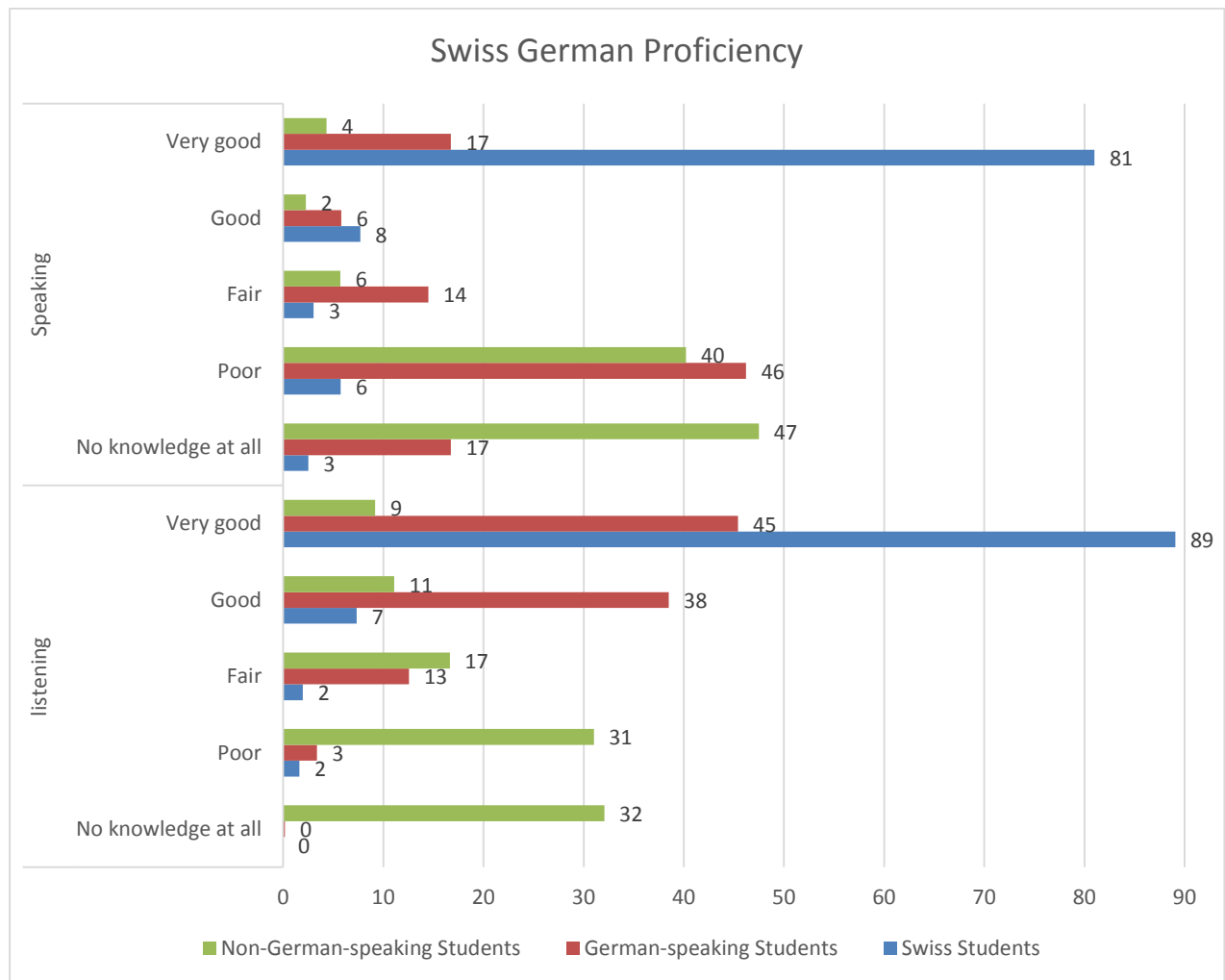
activities or learning, and certain social conditions. One scholar defined the four factors for learning of the new language to be motivation (e.g. the prospect of increased income), access (e.g. opportunities for contact or availability of courses), skills (e.g. general intelligence or particular ability to learn languages), and the costs associated with learning (e.g. time involved, pressure to assimilate) (Esser, 2006). Especially for non-German-speaking students, the language proficiency of German can partly reflect their motivation to communicate with the host society.

In this study, language is handled with care, since there are around half of the foreign students speaking the same mother language as the official language in German-speaking Switzerland. For those German-speaking students, the language proficiency of the host language is no longer an acquisition process. Therefore, the proficiency of Swiss German is measured as well.

Swiss German Proficiency

There was a significant difference when evaluating the proficiency of Swiss German, as most Swiss students are “very good” at both listening (89%) and speaking (81%) Swiss German. To understand Swiss German is less problematic for German-speaking students, as 45% of them can understand Swiss German “very well” and 17% of them can speak Swiss German “very well”. Apparently, Swiss German is difficult for non-German-speaking students, where only 9% of them can understand it “very well” and barely 4% of them can speak it “very well”.

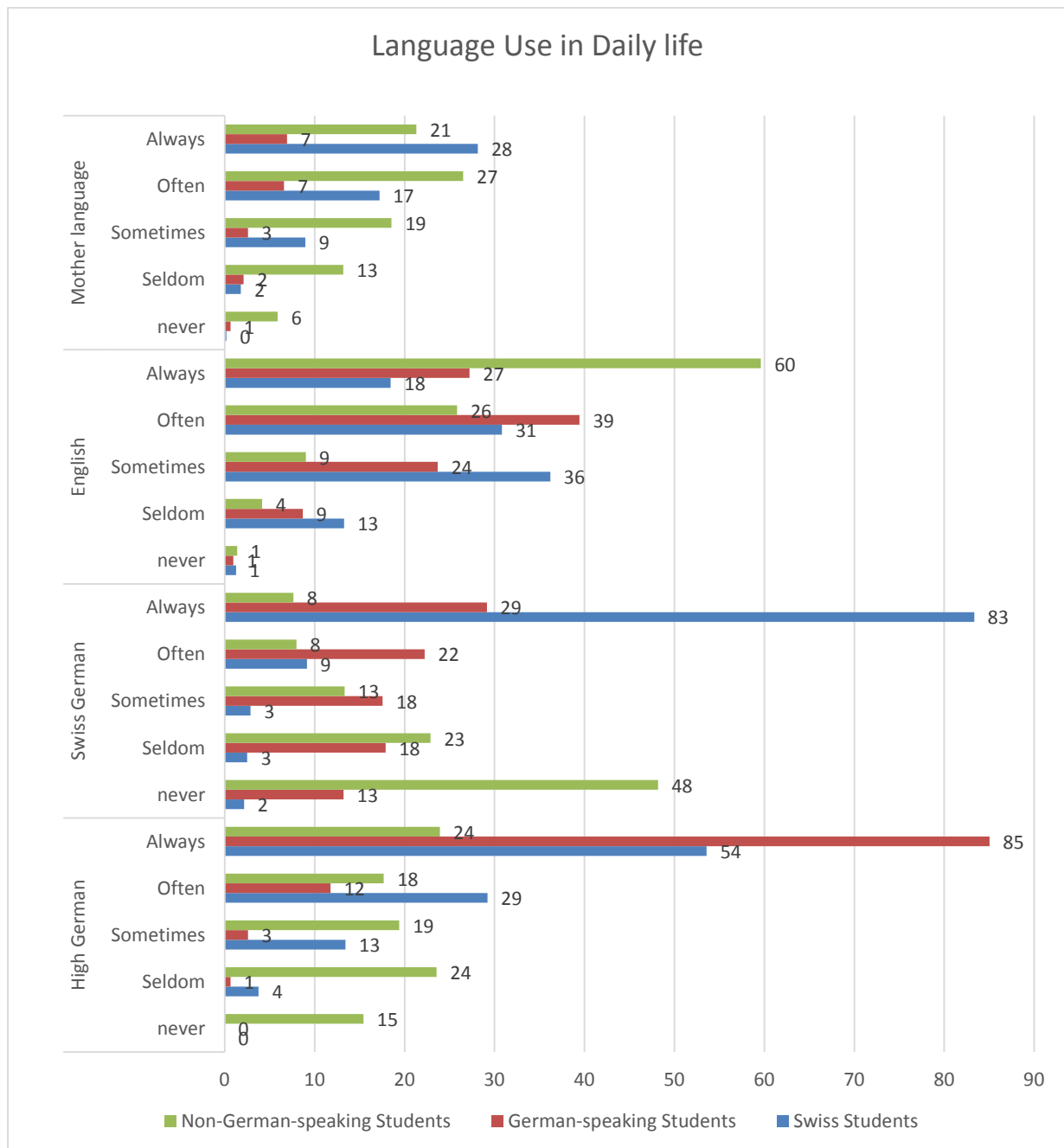
Figure 28: Swiss German Proficiency



Language Use in Daily Life

Both Swiss students and German-speaking students use their mother languages in daily life the most frequently. For example, 83% of Swiss students always use Swiss German and 85% of German-speaking students always use High German. Differently, non-German-speaking students use English more often; 60% of them use English the most frequent compared to only 21% of them who always use their mother languages. In contrast, only 27% of German-speaking students and 18% of Swiss students “always” use English.

Figure 29: Language Use in Daily Life



*Mother language is asked to be left blank if it is one of the mentioned languages (High German, Swiss German, and English)

Factor Analysis was used to reduce the dimension of the *Language Competence Indicator*, which contains ten variables. The language use frequency of English use was deleted, because its communalities is .299 (below .6) through Factor Analysis. After excluding the frequency use of the English language, Factor Analysis was conducted again with the rest nine variables. Mother language use frequency is deleted because Factor Analysis suggests

this variable alone to be a single factor. In conclusion, Factor Analysis had excluded two variables, the English language use frequency and the mother language use frequency. In the end, eight variables are combined into two factors.

Table 35: Language Indicator: results from Factor Analysis and Reliability Analysis

		Rotated Component Matrix	Communalities
Factor 1	High German speaking	.903	.947
	High German listening	.890	.928
	High German reading	.902	.936
	High German writing	.893	.919
	High German use frequency	.902	.822
Variance Explained (%)		56.6	
Eigenvalues		4.2	
Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)		.971	
Factor 2	Swiss German speaking	.939	.909
	Swiss German use frequency	.876	.862
	Swiss German listening	.716	.886
Variance Explained (%)		33.6	
Eigenvalues		2.7	
Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)		.908	
Total Variance Explained (%)		90	

8.2 Social Interaction in Daily Life

The *Social Interaction Indicator* contains two elements, friend numbers and meeting friends' frequency. Considering friend numbers, the three groups showed a very similar tendency. Especially in the number of friends living in Switzerland who come from the same home country, the three groups showed nearly the same curve in the friend number distributions.

Friend Numbers

In their real life, almost 60% of German-speaking students have less than ten local Swiss friends, and this percentage is even lower (70%) among non-German-speaking students. Obviously, Swiss students have more local Swiss friends. However, unexpectedly, almost all of these three groups (80%) have fewer than ten friends who came from their home country but live in Switzerland.

Question: How many friends approximately of each category do you have now in your real life?

Figure 30: The Number of Local Swiss Friends

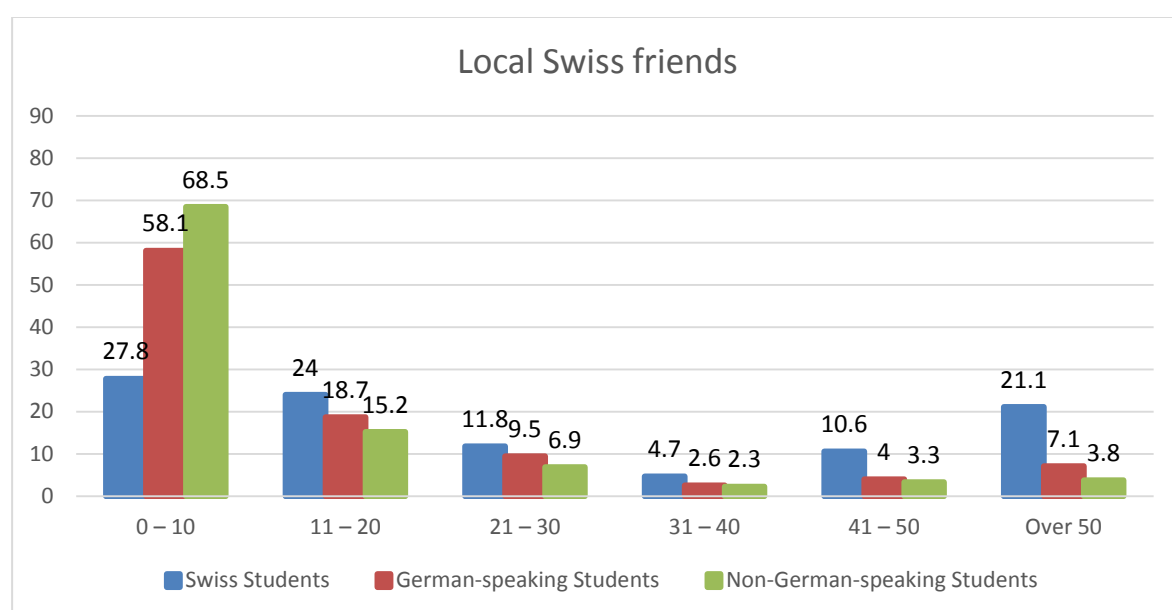
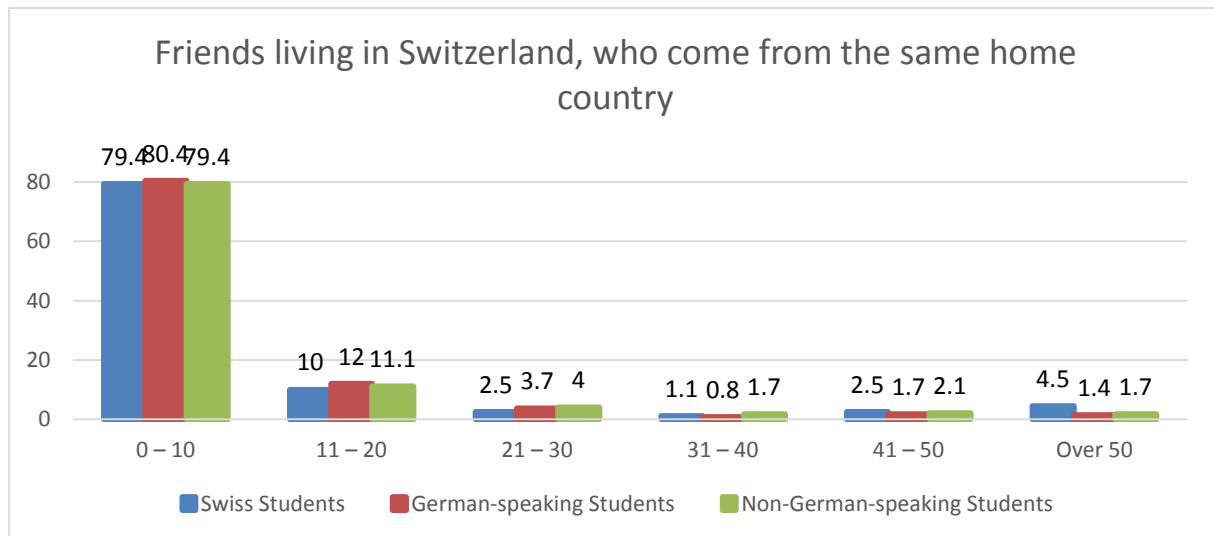


Figure 31: The Number of Friends living in Switzerland, who come from the same home country



Similarly, there are slight differences among the three groups in regard to friends outside of Switzerland. Both German and non-German speaking students have more friends living in their home countries. In general, non-German-speaking students have more international friends than the other two groups.

Figure 32: The Number of Friends Living in Home Country

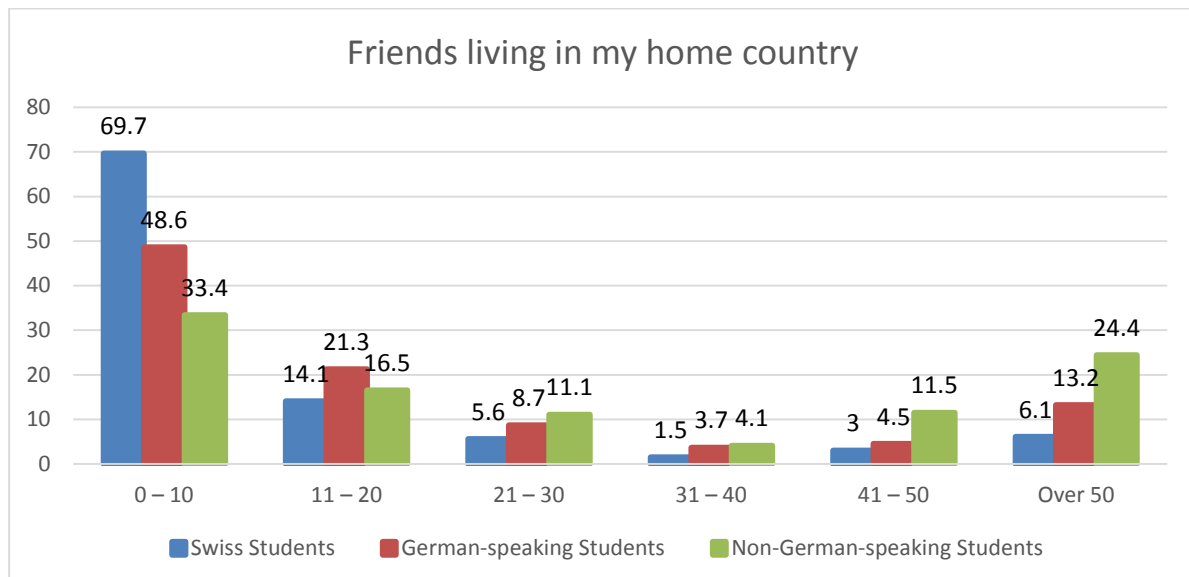
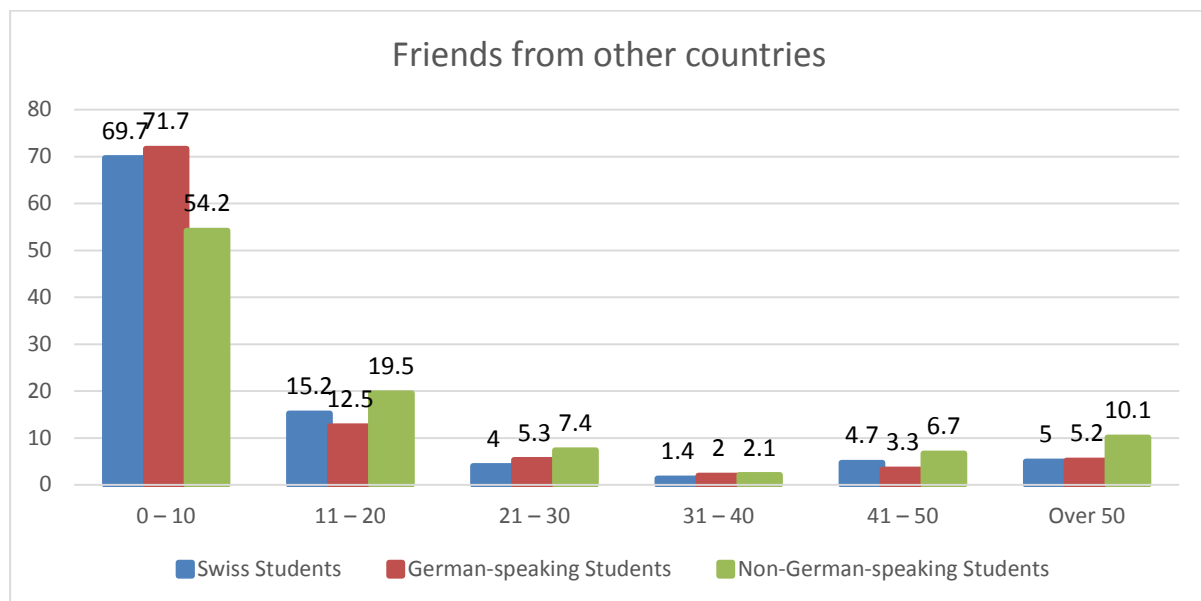


Figure 33: The Number of Friends from Other Countries



Friends in Social Life

Swiss students meet local Swiss friends the most frequently, for example 42% of them meet local Swiss friends daily or almost daily, and 37% of them meet Swiss friends once or several times weekly. The other two groups meet local Swiss friends less frequently but also on a regular basis. 28% of German-speaking students meet local Swiss friends daily or almost daily, and 35.3% of them meet Swiss friends once or several times weekly. In comparison, 20% of non-German-speaking students meet local Swiss friends daily or almost daily, and 25% of them meet Swiss friends once or several times weekly, and 26% of them meet Swiss friends on a monthly basis.

Compared with the other three groups, German-speaking students meet friends from their home country living in Switzerland the most frequently. 17.6% of them meet friends living in Switzerland with the same migration backgrounds daily or almost daily, 31% of them meet others on a weekly basis, and 25% of them meet others on a monthly basis. Similarly, 25% of German-speaking students meet their friends, who live in their home countries on a monthly basis. This is the most frequent among the three groups, compared to 6% of Swiss students and 10% of non-German-speaking students who do so.

Questions: How often do you meet Swiss, international friends or friends from/in your home country, who do not belong to your family, in your free time?

Figure 34: Meeting Local Swiss Friends

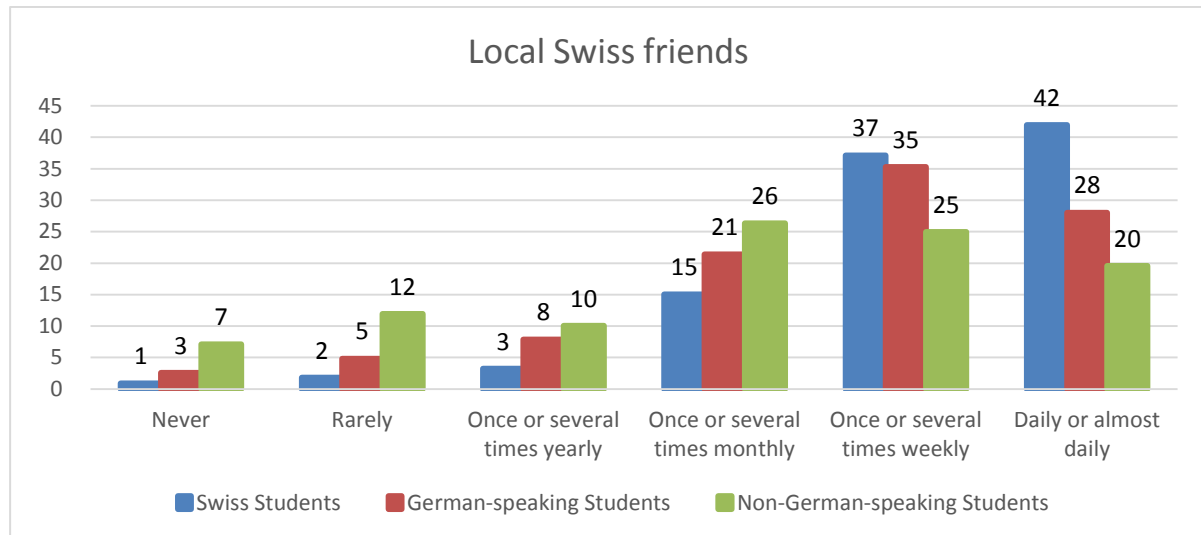
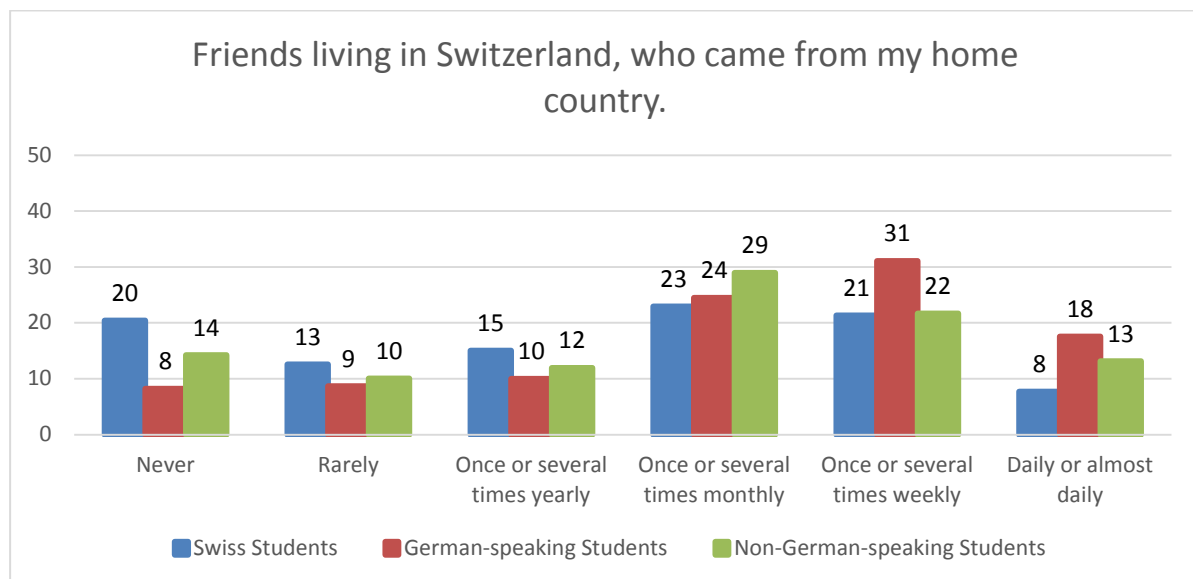


Figure 35: Meeting Friends with the Same Migration Background Living in Switzerland



Non-German-speaking students tend to meet international friends more frequently. 13.5% of them meet international friends on a daily basis, 21.5% of them meet on a weekly basis and 17.9% of them meet on a monthly basis. These are the highest frequencies among all of the groups.

Figure 36: Meeting Friends Living in Home Country

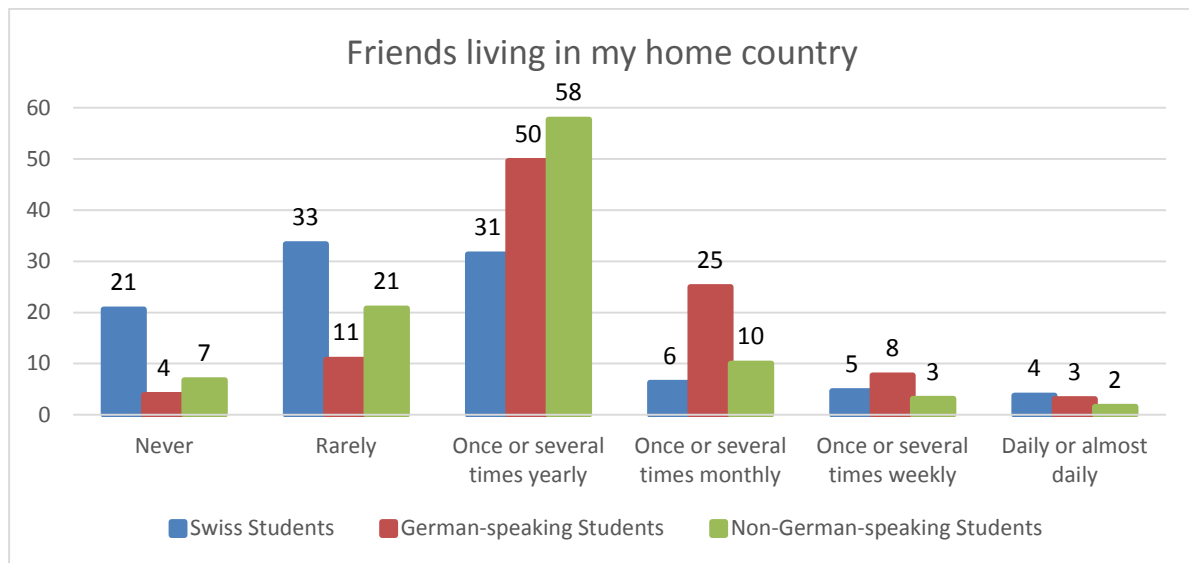
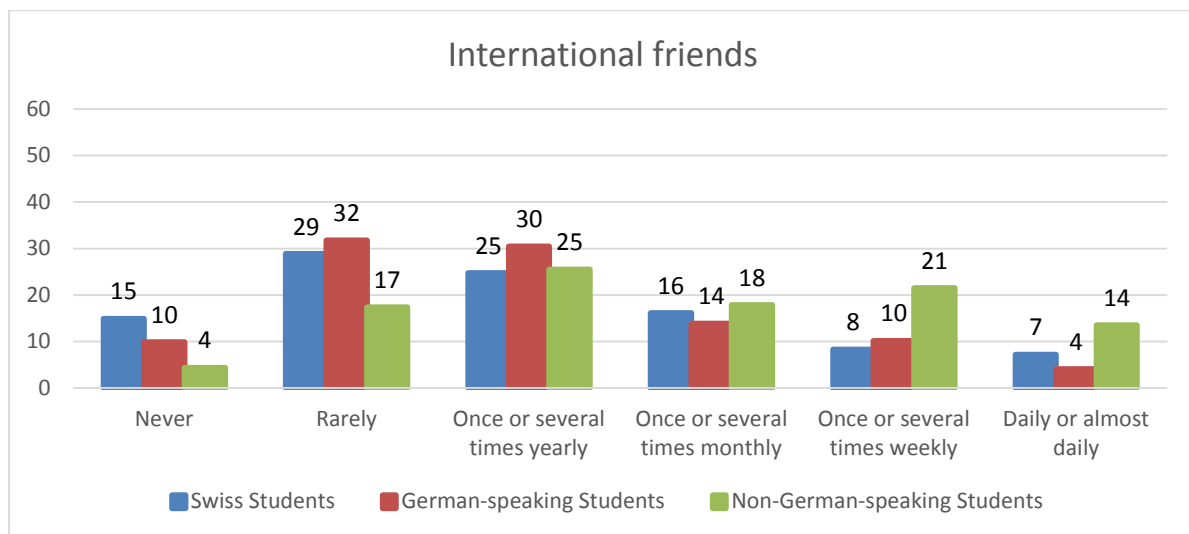


Figure 37: Meeting International Friends



Factor Analysis was used to reduce the dimension of the *Social Interaction Indicator*, which contains eight variables. It suggests that the social interaction indicator could be built into four factors. Factor one is made up with three variables, the number of friends from international society, the number of friends living in the home country, and the number of friends with the same migration background but living in Switzerland. Factor two is built up with two variables, meeting frequency of friends with the same migration background but living in Switzerland and meeting frequency of friends living in the home country. Factor three contains two variables, meeting frequency of Swiss friends and the numbers of Swiss friends. Factor four has only one variable of meeting frequency of international friends.

However, factor two was deleted because its Cronbach's Alpha .467 in Reliability Analysis is lower than an acceptable value. Therefore, the social interaction indicator was built up with three factors.

Table 36: Social Interaction Indicator: Results from Factor Analysis and Reliability Analysis

		Rotated Component Matrix	Communalities
Factor 1	Friends number: international friends	.794	.744
	Friends number: friends from home society	.770	.694
	Friends number: friends with the same migration backgrounds in Switzerland	.649	.645
Variance Explained (%)		24.4	
Eigenvalues		1.9	
Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)		.645	
Factor 2	Friends number: Swiss friends	.893	.726
	Meeting Frequency: Swiss friends	.636	.829
Variance Explained (%)		17	
Eigenvalues		1.4	
Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)		.507	
Factor 3	Meeting Frequency: International friends	.898	.837
Variance Explained (%)		14	
Eigenvalues		1.1	
Total Variance Explained (%)		55	

8.3 Psychological Distance towards Swiss Residents

There are four questions designed in the *Psychological Distance Indicator*. Three groups show a very similar tendency in the psychological distance towards local residents as a bystander or in person. In general, German-speaking students express less of a distance towards local residents, or in other words, a stronger will to get in touch with local residents.

When being asked “what do you feel if the people from my home country have many Swiss friends or will marry a Swiss”, German-speaking students show a slightly more positive attitude. 41% of them think that to have many Swiss friends is “very good” and 27.7% of them think that marriage with a Swiss is “very good”.

Figure 38: Psychological distance towards Friendship as Bystander

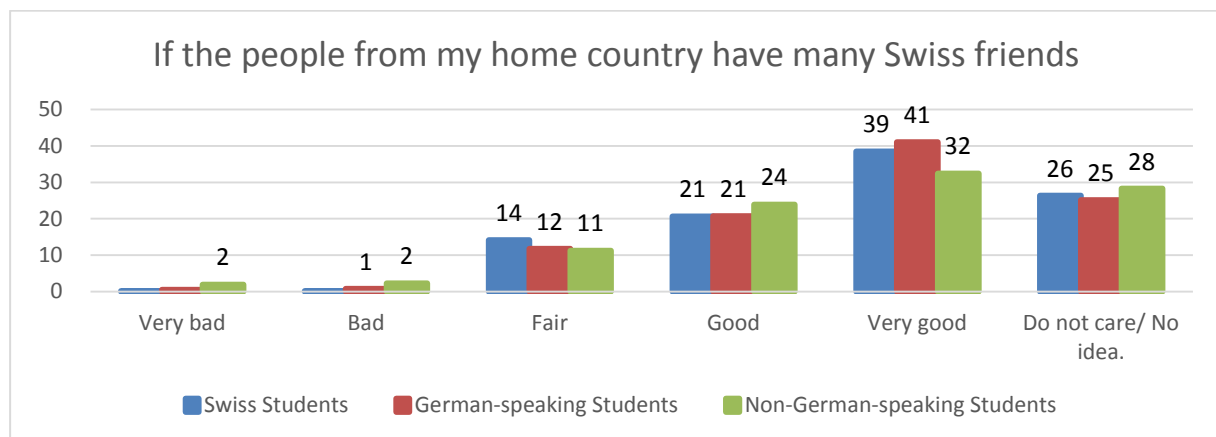
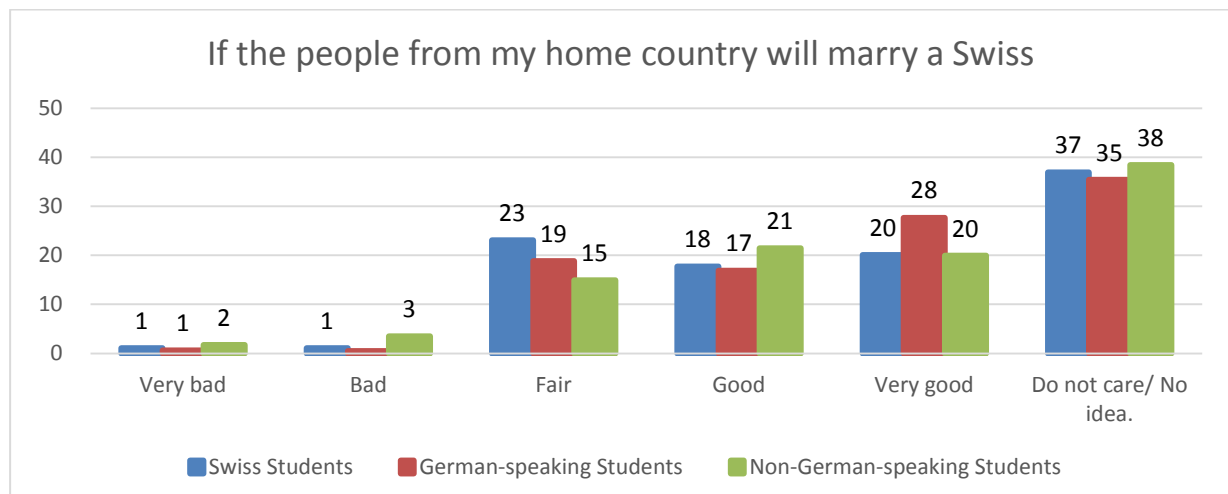


Figure 39: Psychological distance towards Marriage as Bystander



48% of German-speaking students think it is “very good” if they have many Swiss friends, and this rate is 45% in Swiss students and 38.8% in non-German-speaking students. When being asked “what do you feel if you will marry a Swiss”, three groups showed nearly the same reaction, where around 20% of them think it is “very good”, between 12% to 17% of them think it is “good”, and around 20% of them think it is “fair”. However, most of them, around 40%, have no opinion.

Figure 40: Psychological distance towards Friendship in Person

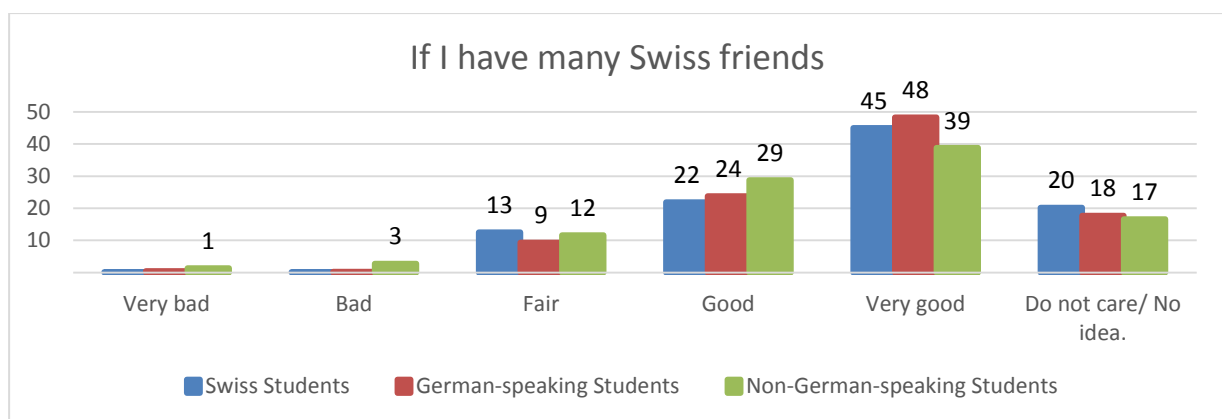
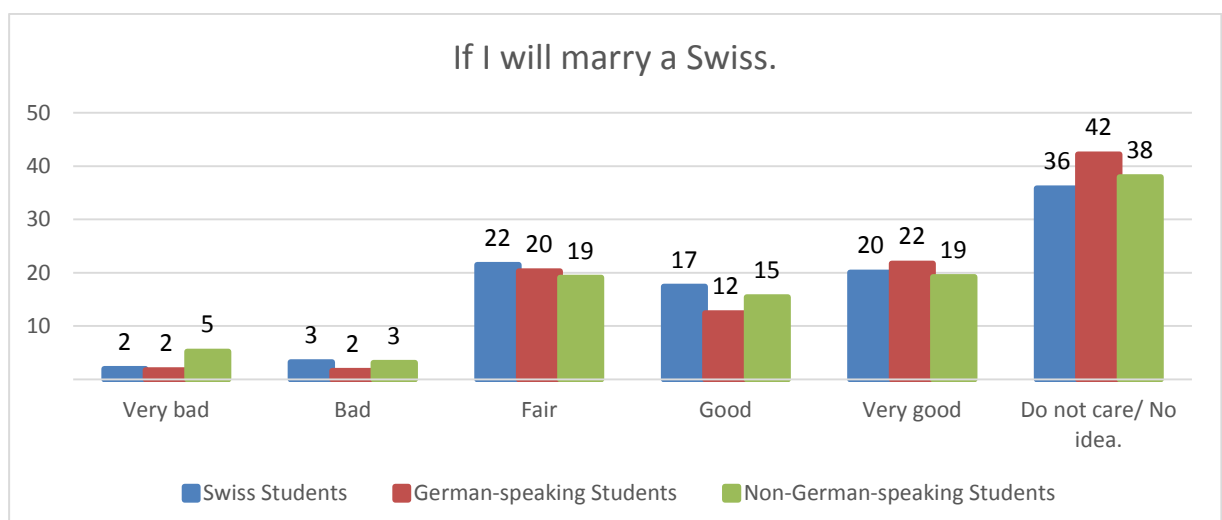


Figure 41: Psychological distance towards Marriage in Person



Factor Analysis shows that these four variables can be reduced into one factor.

Table 37: Psychological Distance Indicator: Results from Factor Analysis and Reliability Analysis

	Component Matrix	Communalities
If the people from my home country have many Swiss friends	.863	.746
If the people from my home country will marry a Swiss	.878	.772
If I have many Swiss friends	.854	.730
If I will marry a Swiss	.797	.636
Total Variance Explained (%)	72	
Eigenvalues	2.9	
Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)	.898	

8.4 Satisfaction in Switzerland

Six questions were asked about the satisfaction of participants in Switzerland. The three groups show a highly consistent curve in the satisfaction of the institute and universities where they study. Both German-speaking students and non-German-speaking students show nearly the same distribution in the satisfaction of their living situation in Switzerland. However, generally more Swiss students (65%) are satisfied with their living situation than foreign students (44-45%).

Figure 42: Satisfaction with Institute/University in Switzerland

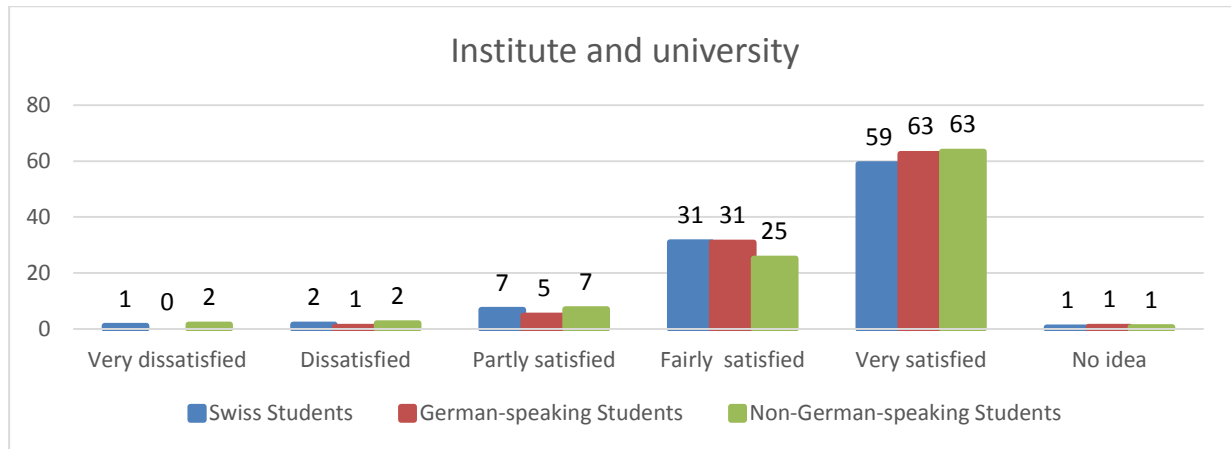
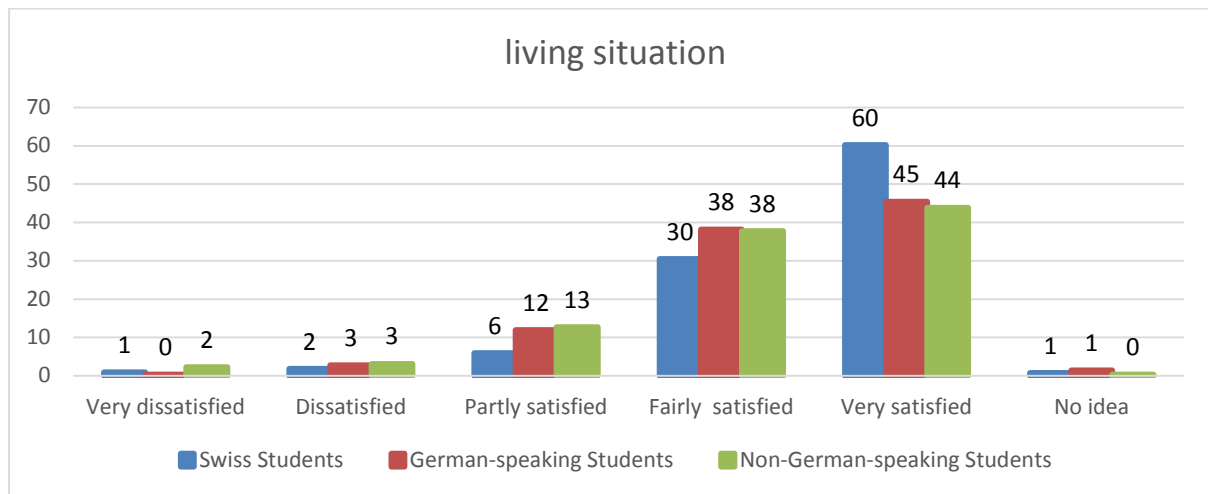
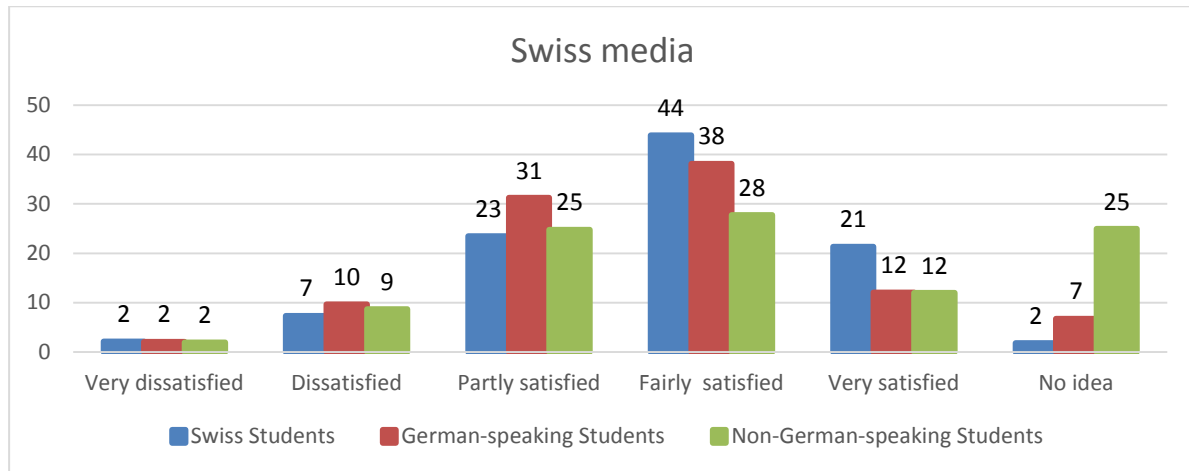


Figure 43: Satisfaction with Living situation in Switzerland



Around one-fourth of non-German-speaking students chose “No Idea” when asked about their satisfaction with Swiss media. One possibility is that this may result from their low consumption of Swiss media. In general, Swiss students are more satisfied with the Swiss media than foreign students.

Figure 44: Satisfaction with Swiss media



The results show, on average, that satisfaction with the migration policy in Switzerland and the general attitude of Swiss towards migrants are the two of the least satisfied points among the six aspects in the survey. Both Swiss students and German-speaking students are less satisfied with the migration policy in Switzerland, while non-German-speaking students show more tolerance. German-speaking students is the group with the least satisfaction on the general attitude of Swiss towards migrants. Swiss students show a bit of a higher level of satisfaction and non-German-speaking students show, again, a more tolerate attitude.

Figure 45: Satisfaction with the Migration Policy in Switzerland

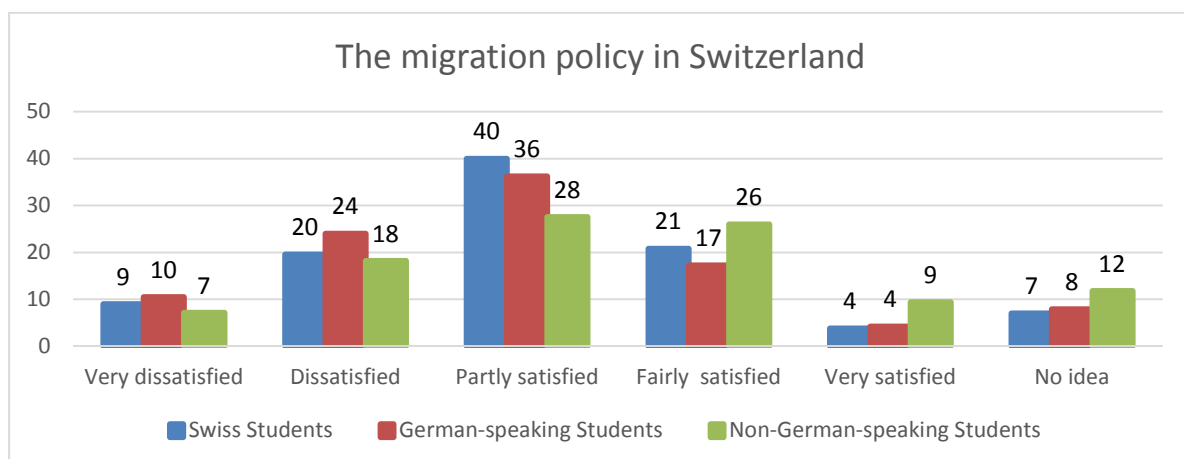
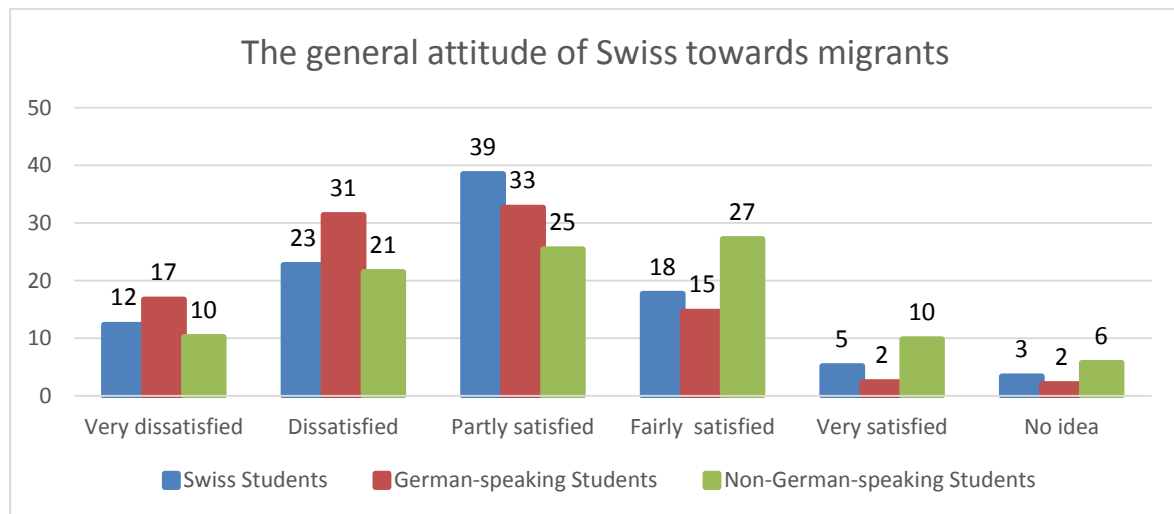
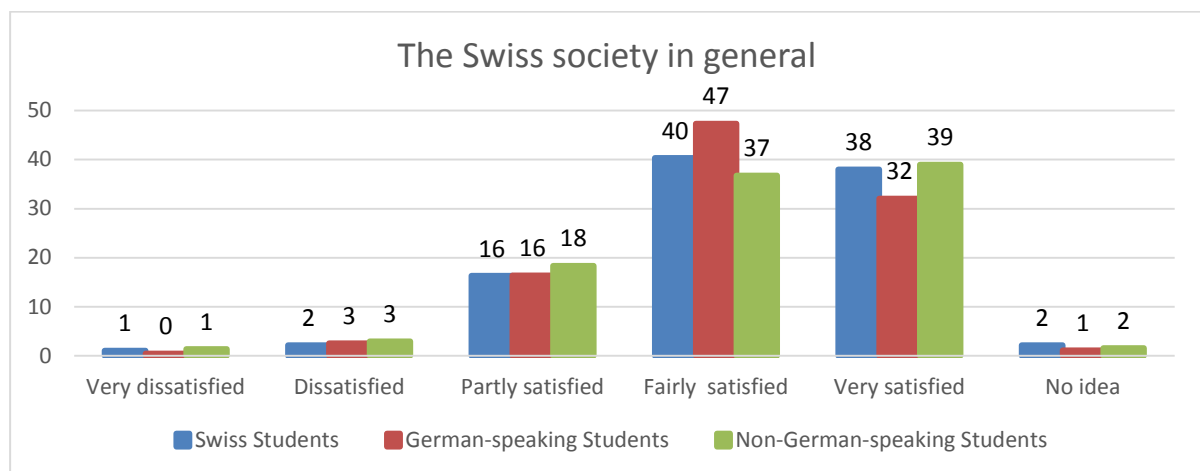


Figure 46: Satisfaction with the General Attitude of Swiss towards Migrants



There is a similar tendency found in the satisfaction with the Swiss society in general among the three groups. German-speaking students are slightly less satisfied with Swiss society than the other students.

Figure 47: Satisfaction with Swiss Society in General



Factor Analysis was used to reduce the dimension of the *Satisfaction Indicator*, which contains six variables. The satisfaction of the Swiss media is ignored, because its communalities is .393 (below .6) through Factor Analysis. After excluding the satisfaction of the Swiss media, Factor Analysis was conducted again with the remaining five variables. The satisfaction of the Swiss society in general is ignored because its communalities is .478 (below .6) through Factor Analysis (communalities .468 in the first Factor Analysis). In conclusion, Factor Analysis had excluded two variables, the satisfaction of the Swiss media

and the satisfaction of Swiss society in general. In the end, the satisfaction indicator is suggested to be built up into two factors.

The reliability analysis showed that the Cronbach's Alpha of factor one is .485, which is under an acceptable value (.6). However, these two variables refer to the satisfaction with the living and working situation in Switzerland and they represented only 33% of the participants. Therefore, this factor will be taken into cluster analysis.

Table 38: Satisfaction Indicator: results from Factor Analysis and Reliability Analysis

Factor		Rotated Component Matrix	Communalities
1	Your institute and university in Switzerland	.825	.682
	Your current living situation in Switzerland	.790	.642
Variance Explained (%)		33	
Eigenvalues		1.3	
Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)		.485	
2	The migrant policy in Switzerland	.883	.792
	The general attitude of Swiss towards migrants	.891	.801
Variance Explained (%)		40	
Eigenvalues		1.6	
Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)		.764	
Total Variance Explained (%)		73	

8.5 The Wish to Stay in Switzerland

Four questions towards the willingness to stay in Switzerland were asked in the *The Wish to Stay in Switzerland* Indicator. This indicator was applied in existing empirical studies and proven its good validity (Piga, 2008; Trebbe, 2007). In general, the three groups showed the

similar tendency in each of the four questions. Among them, Swiss students showed a stronger unwillingness to leave Switzerland. 48% of Swiss students choose “strongly disagree” to the question “I will leave Switzerland right after I finish my study.”, in comparison to only 29% of German-speaking students and 21% of non-German-speaking students which chose that. Accordingly, 45% of Swiss students chose “strongly disagree” or “disagree” to the question “I will leave Switzerland some day in the future.”, in comparison to 24% of German-speaking students and 16% of non-German-speaking students.

Figure 48: The Wish to Leave Switzerland Right after the Study

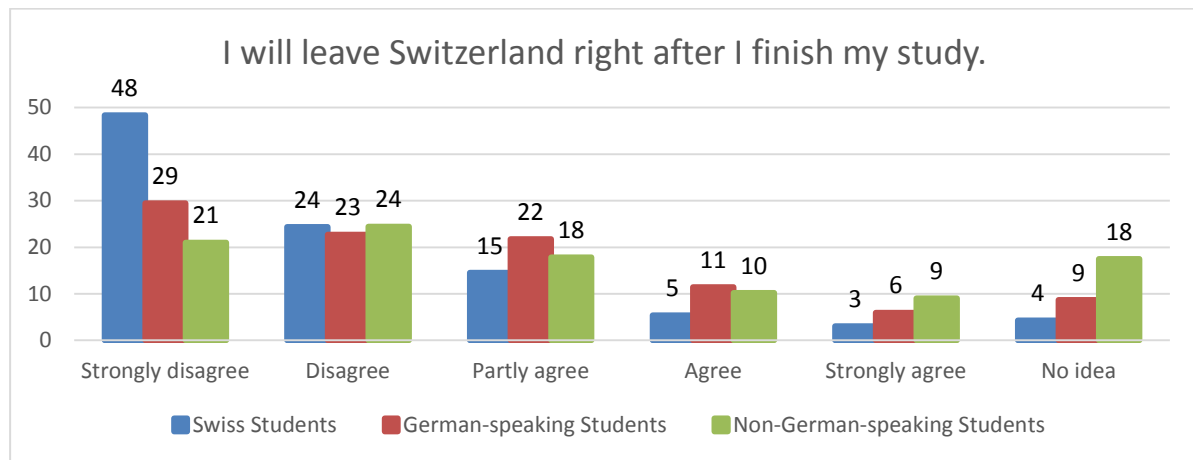
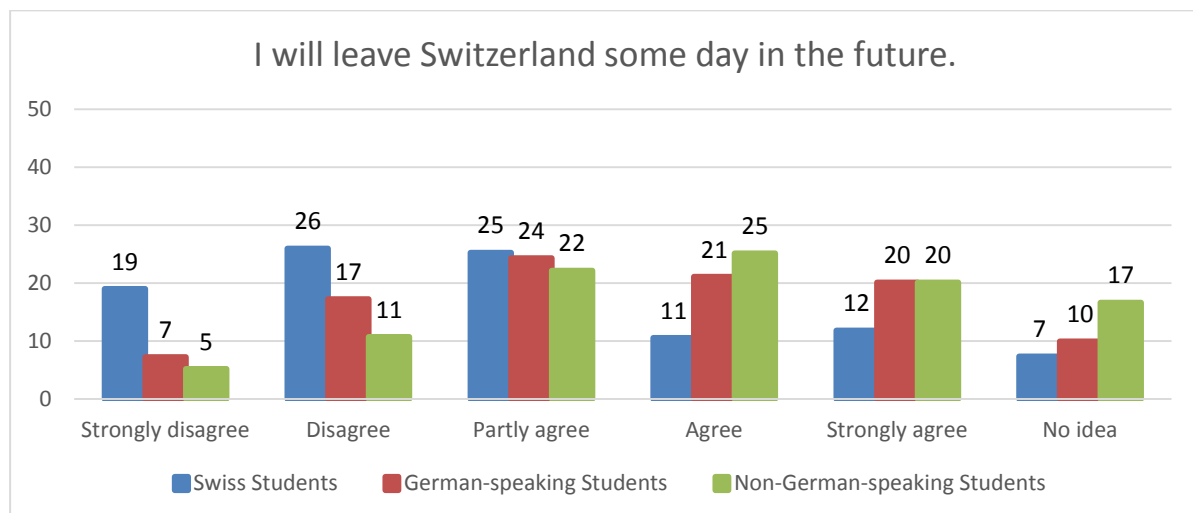


Figure 49: The Wish to Leave Switzerland in Future



Accordingly, Swiss students show a stronger willingness to stay in Switzerland. 40% of Swiss students choose “strongly agree” or “agree” to the question “I would like to always

stay in Switzerland.”, in comparison to 25% of German-speaking students and 22% of non-German-speaking students who chose that. A very high proportion of Swiss students (76%) have no idea if they would apply for Swiss citizenship. One possibility is that it might be because they already have a Swiss citizenship. Foreign students show a similar attitude towards always staying in Switzerland and applying for a Swiss citizenship.

Figure 50: The Wish to Always Stay in Switzerland

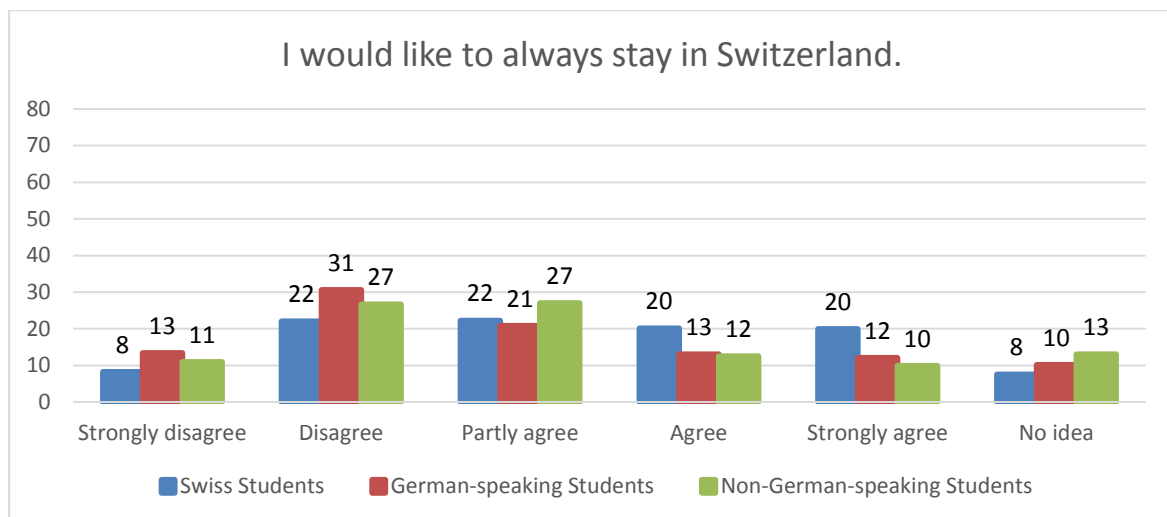
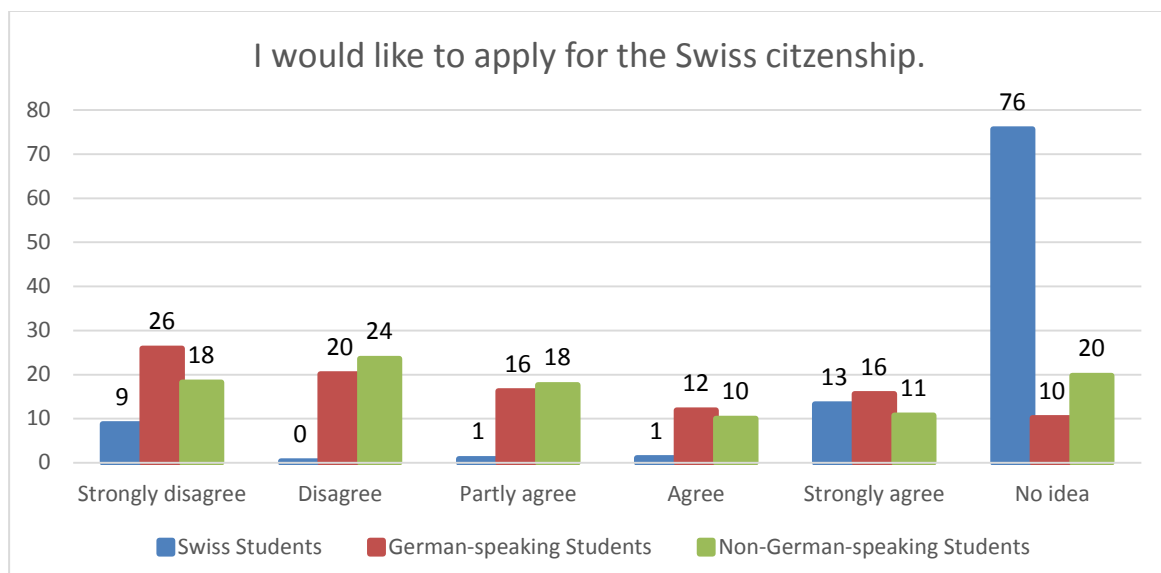


Figure 51: The Wish to Naturalize as Swiss



Factor Analysis was used to reduce the dimension of *The Wish to Stay in Switzerland* Indicator, which contains four variables. The first two variables “I will leave Switzerland right after I finish my study” and “I will leave Switzerland some day in the future” are the

negative wishes to stay in Switzerland, and the last two variables “I would like to always stay in Switzerland” and “I would like to apply for Swiss citizenship” are the positive wishes to stay in Switzerland. Before a general the wish to stay indicator was to be built upon these four variables, the first two variables were reversely recoded so that the scales of four variables indicate the same direction regarding to the positive wish to stay in Switzerland.

Factor Analysis suggested to build up four variables into one factor. The result shows that around 66% of variance is explained. The variable “I would like to apply for Swiss citizenship” is deleted, because its communalities is .404.

Table 39: The wish to stay Indicator: Results from Factor Analysis and Reliability Analysis

	Component Matrix	Communalities
I will leave Switzerland right after I finish my study	.834	.696
I will leave Switzerland some day in the future	.892	.796
I would like to always stay in Switzerland	.837	.700
Total Variance	73	
Explained (%)		
Eigenvalues	2.2	
Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)	.832	

8.6 Various Identities

Compared to foreign students, Swiss students have a much stronger feeling as a member of a Swiss city or region (Mean: 4.0/5.0) and as a Swiss (3.9/5.0). German-speaking students have a relatively higher recognition as a member of a continent (Mean: 4.0/5.0). Non-German-speaking students identify themselves much closer as a member of the city or region of their home country (Mean: 3.5/5.0) and a member of their home country (4.0/5.0).

It is worth to mention that hybrid identity (a member of both Switzerland and a home country, Mean: 4.0/5.0) is the most recognized identity among Swiss students, compared to foreign students. Non-German-speaking students tend to consider themselves more as a member of international academic migrants (Mean: 3.44/5.0) compared to the other two groups. There were no significant difference among the three groups regarding identities of cosmopolitan and diaspora (a member of the international community of their home country).

Table 40: Identity (Mean/ Standard Deviation)

	Swiss Students N=558	German- speaking Students N=621	Non-German- speaking Students N=577
A member of a Swiss city or region (eg: Basler, Zürcher, Berner, etc.)	3.94 (1.230) N=554	2.77 (1.257) N=613	2.30 (1.194) N=562
Swiss	3.91 (1.079) N=554	1.83 (1.164) N=611	1.67 (1.033) N=564
A member of the city or region of my home country (eg: NewYorker,etc.)	2.71 (1.407) N=528	3.37 (1.388) N=613	3.50 (1.375) N=569
A member of my home country (eg: German, American, etc.)	3.28 (1.323) N=532	3.70 (1.208) N=613	3.96 (1.212) N=571
A member of a particular continent (eg: European, Asian, etc.)	3.27 (1.447) N=541	3.93 (1.221) N=609	3.79 (1.289) N=560
A member of both Switzerland and my home country	3.92 (1.259) N=533	2.61 (1.459) N=599	2.68 (1.314) N=560
Cosmopolitan	2.96 (1.557) N=510	2.96 (1.471) N=597	3.31 (1.420) N=526
A member of the international community of my home country (eg: Chinese overseas, etc.)	1.47 (1.001) N=453	1.55 (1.033) N=530	2.20 (1.335) N=530
A member of international academic migrants	1.56 (1.105) N=459	2.08 (1.344) N=553	3.23 (1.509) N=533

To discuss the Identity Indicator in detail, the agreements to different kinds of identities in percentage by three groups are illustrated as following.

Regional and National Swiss Identity

45% of Swiss students agree “very much” with the identity of “A member of a Swiss city or region”. 20% of German-speaking students and 15% of non-German-speaking students agree “quite much” with this identity compared to 25% of Swiss students. However, the agreement with the identity of “Swiss” is lower in Swiss students (36%) and much lower among foreign students.

Figure 52: The Regional Swiss Identity

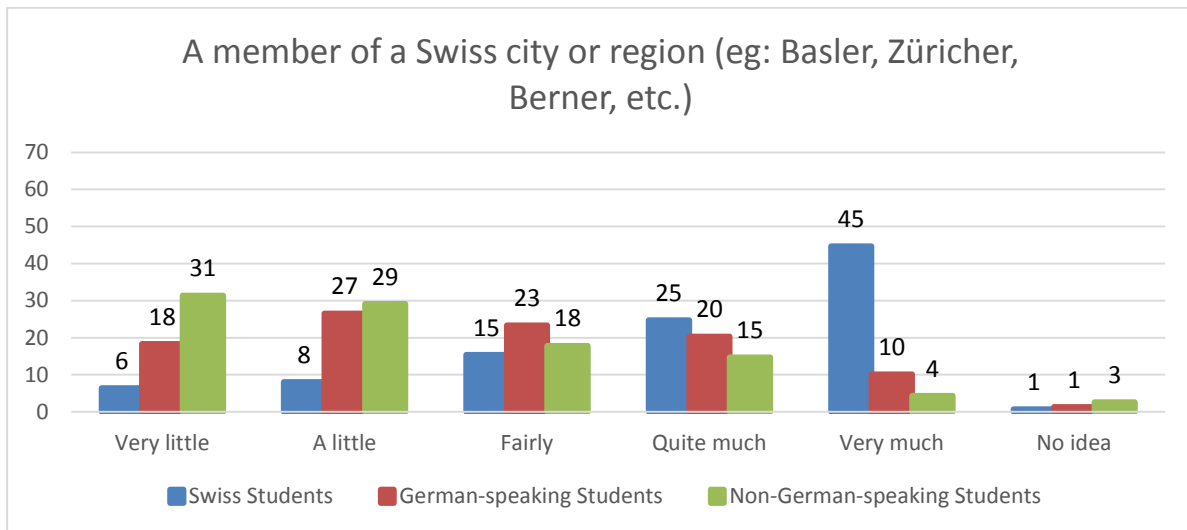
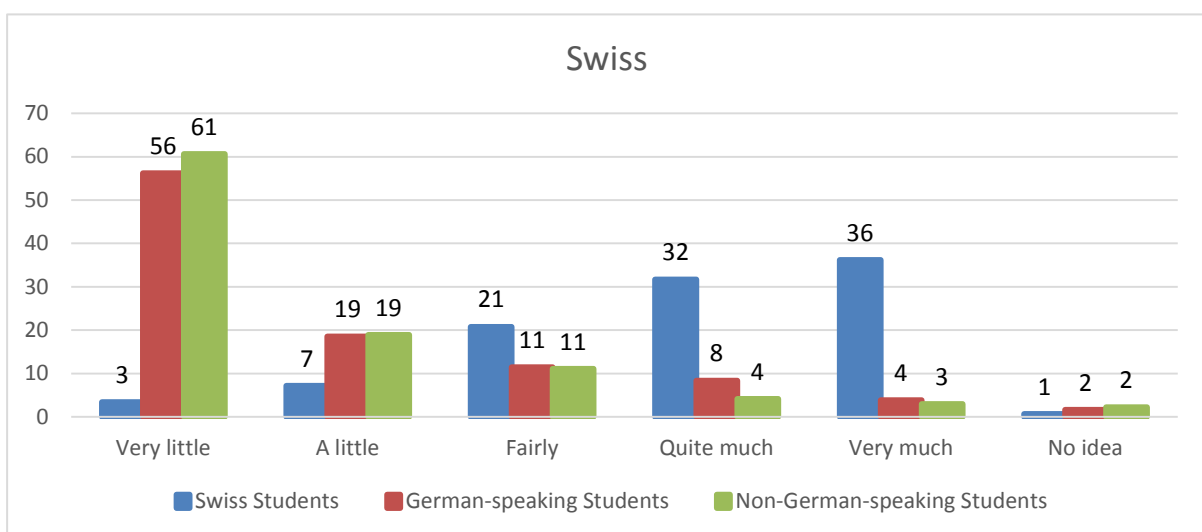


Figure 53: The Swiss Identity



The agreements towards a regional Swiss identity indicate that there are some foreign students that integrate very well in the host society. Some studies show that the new-formed national identity of a host country of migrants depends on the two aspects: the acceptance by the host country and the length of residence in the host country.

“...for immigrants, the ethnic identity and national identity are by definition different. Among immigrants, a national identity is formed slowly, as they develop a sense of belonging to their new country. If immigrants are accepted in their country of settlements, their national identity typically becomes stronger with length of residence. However, if they experience discrimination and rejection, they are unlikely to develop a strong national identity (Phinney, 2013).”

Regional and National Home Identity

There are fewer foreign students that have the regional home identity than Swiss students. 26% of German-speaking students and 31% of non-German-speaking students agree “very much” to feel like “a member of city or region of my home country”, compared to 14% of Swiss students. On the contrary, their national home identity is stronger. 44% of non-German-speaking students and 30% of German-speaking students agree “very much” to feel like “a member of my home country”, compared to 20% of Swiss students. Home identity, sometimes, which is referred to as ethnic identity as well, is defined by some scholars as “a sense of peoplehood based on one’s ancestry and one’s cultural values and traditions. It is an identity into which one is born, and its meaning and implications are learned initially in the home and in the surrounding ethnic community (Phinney, 2013).” Furthermore, Phinney explained that most immigrants retained a strong sense of their ethnic heritage even as they adapted to a new country and developed a national identity in relation to their new country.

Figure 54: The Regional Home Identity

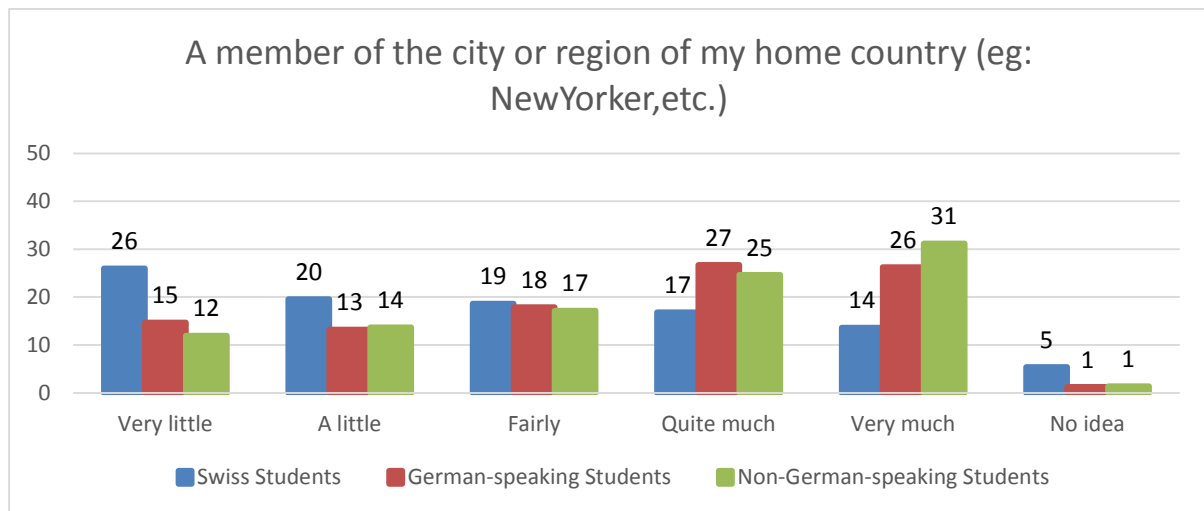
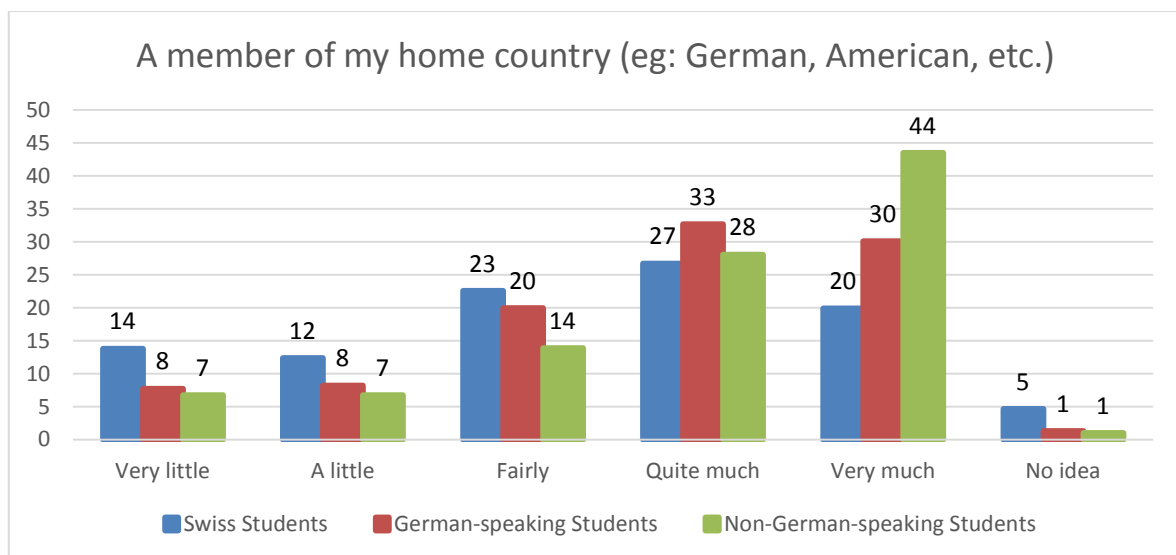


Figure 55: The National Home Identity



Hybrid Identity

Apparently, many Swiss students have a hybrid identity. 44% of them agree “very much” to feel like “a member of both Switzerland and the home country”, compared to 14% of German-speaking students and 12% of non-German-speaking students. In comparison, more foreign students have a continental identity.

A hybrid identity exists usually in people with migration backgrounds. Some scholars (Shibutani & Kwan, 2005) explained the process of forming such an identity. Many who have become assimilated were pushed away from the minority group by severe deprivations.

The most difficult part of assimilation was the transitional period, during which the individual played two sets of roles, one in the minority group and one in the larger society.

Figure 56: The Hybrid Identity of Swiss and Home Country

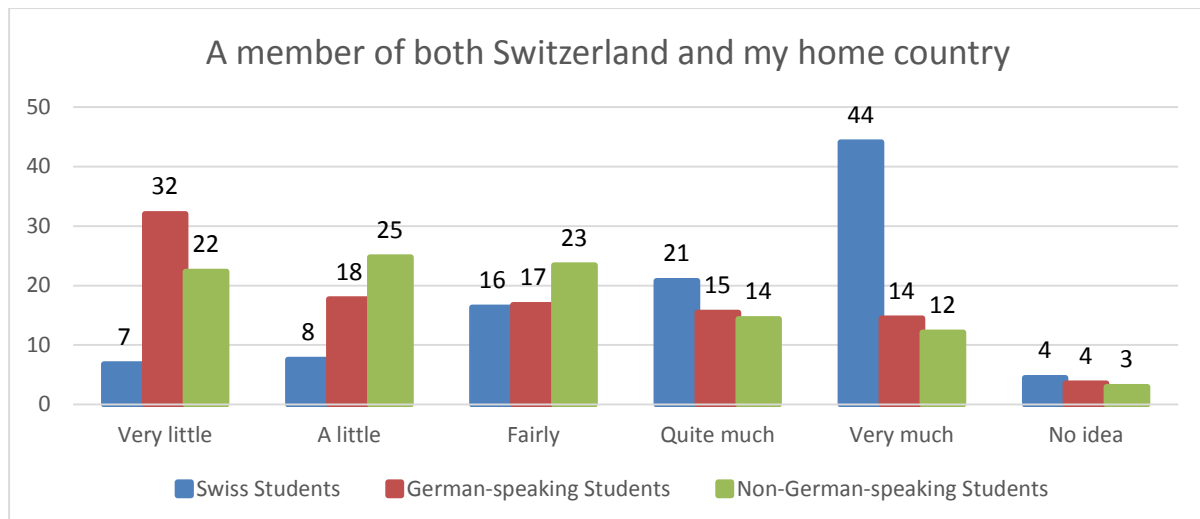
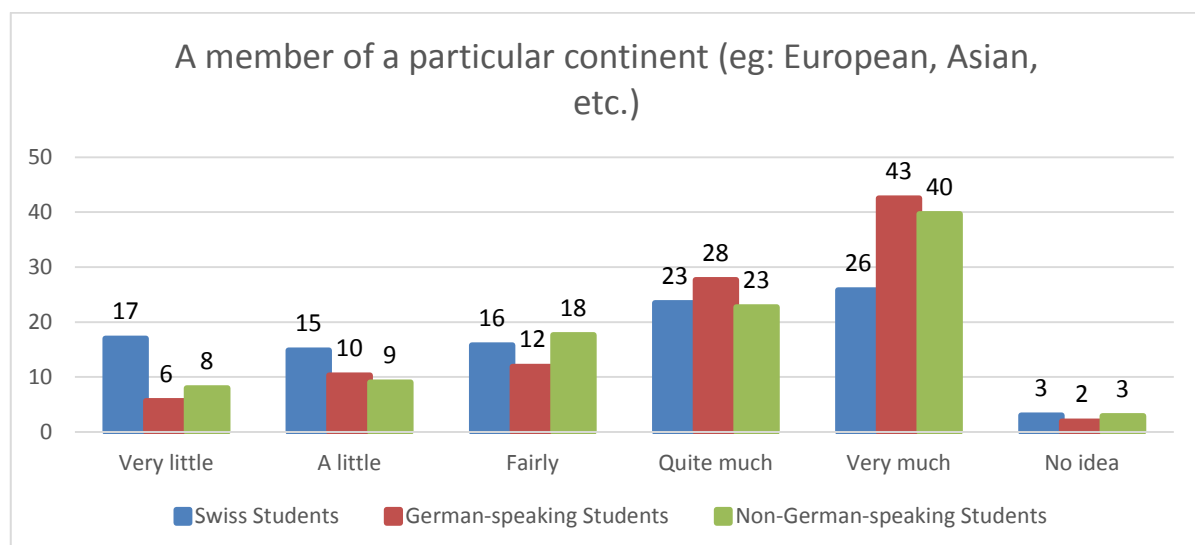


Figure 57: The Continental Identity



International Identity

Beyond the dimensions of home and host country, this study introduced the international dimension of identity, which could indicate the international orientation of migrants. There are slightly more non-German-speaking students that agreed with the cosmopolitan identity and the diaspora identity. Comparatively, there are more non-German-speaking students (25%) that agreed “very much” with feeling like “a member of international academic migrants” than Swiss students (3%) and German-speaking students (8%).

Figure 58: The Cosmopolitan Identity

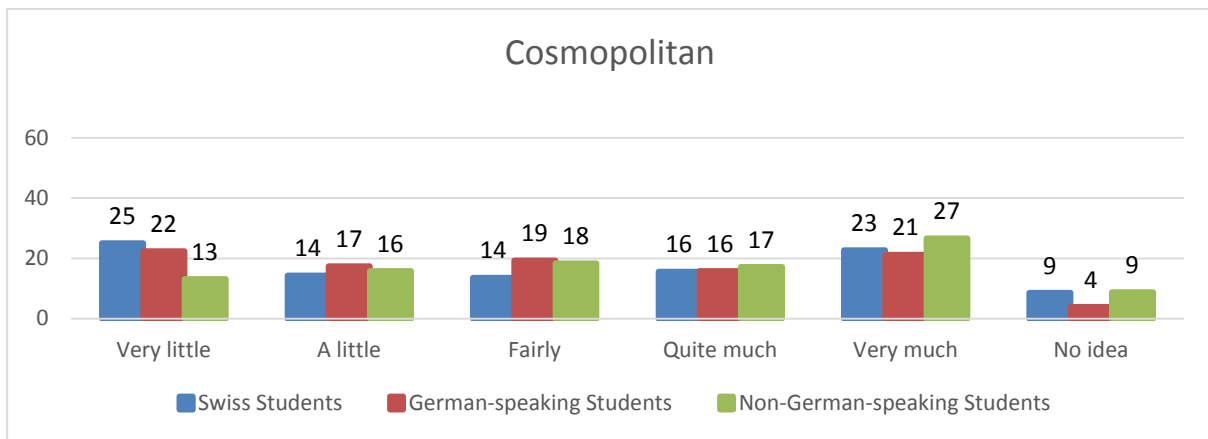


Figure 59: The Diaspora Identity

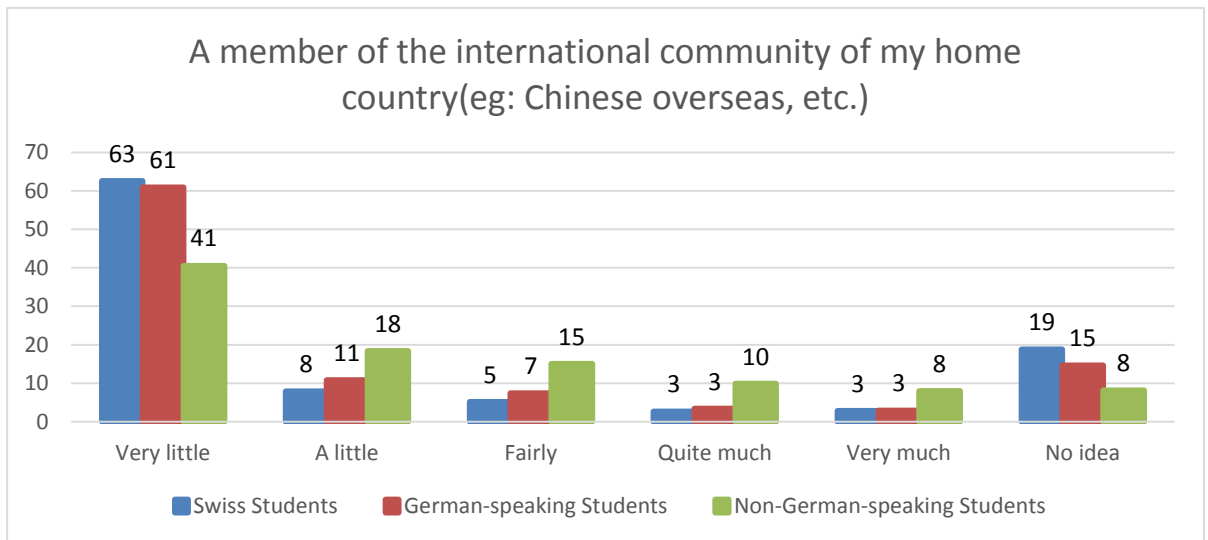
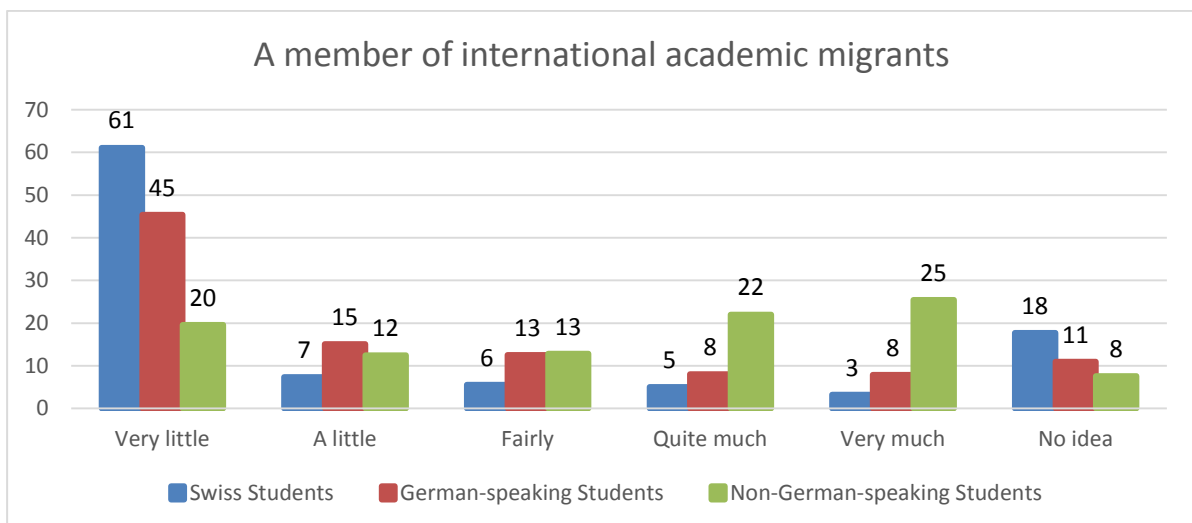


Figure 60: The Identity of International Academic Migrants



Factor Analysis was used to reduce the dimension of the *Identity* Indicator, which contains nine variables. The identity of “A member of a particular continent (eg: European, Asian, etc.)” is ignored, because its communalities is .214 (below .6) through Factor Analysis. After excluding this variable, Factor Analysis was conducted again with the rest of the eight variables. The identity of “A member of the international community of my home country (eg: Chinese overseas, etc.)” is ignored because its communalities is .584 (below .6) through Factor Analysis (communalities .529 in the first Factor Analysis). In conclusion, Factor Analysis had excluded the last variable, the identity of “A member of a particular continent (eg: European, Asian, etc.)”. The identity indicator is suggested to be built up as three factors.

Table 41: Identity Indicator: results from Factor Analysis and Reliability Analysis

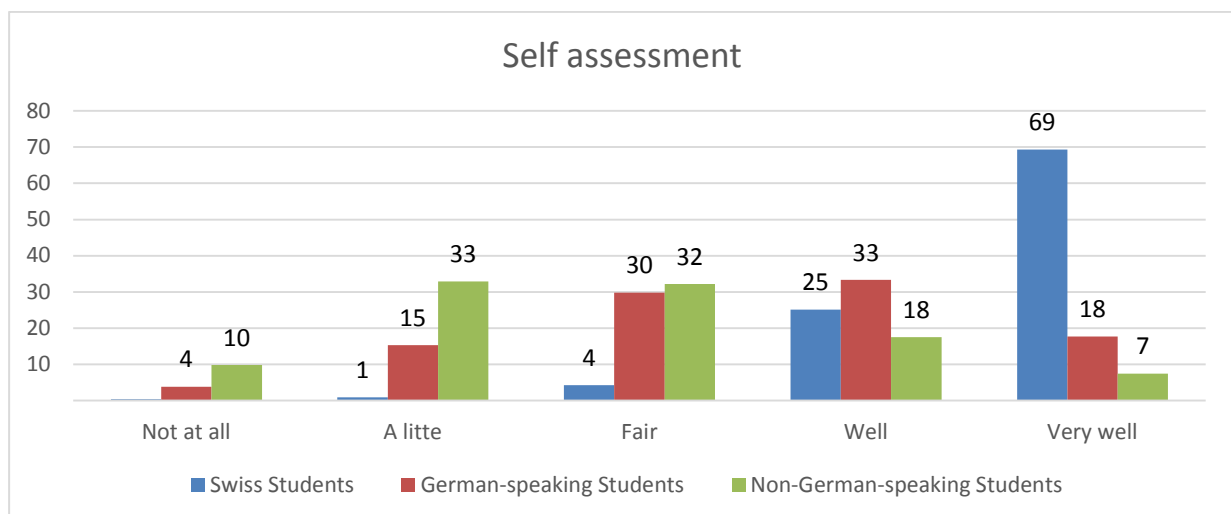
Factor		Rotated Component Matrix	Communalities
1	Swiss	.845	.775
	A member of a Swiss city or region (eg: Basler, Züricher, Berner, etc.)	.811	.675
	A member of both Switzerland and my home country	.801	.662
Variance Explained (%)		29.8	
Eigenvalues		2.1	
Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)		.774	
2	A member of my home country (eg: German, American, etc.)	.862	.747
	A member of the city or region of my home country (eg: New Yorker, etc.)	.831	.708
Variance Explained (%)		22.0	
Eigenvalues		1.5	
Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)		.643	
3	Cosmopolitan	.855	.762
	A member of international academic migrants	.748	.652

Variance Explained (%)	19.3
Eigenvalues	1.3
Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)	.503
Total Variance Explained (%)	67

8.7 Integration Self- Assessment

In order to reflect the subjective evaluation of integration, the *Integration Self-assessment* indicator was introduced. 95% of Swiss students are “well” (25%) or “very well” (69%) integrated into the mainstream Swiss society, however, this rate is much lower among German-speaking students (40%) and the lowest among non-German-speaking students (25%). More than half of German-speaking students are “fairly” and “well” integrated into Swiss society. However, around 65% of non-German-speaking students are “a little” and “fairly” integrated.

Figure 61: Integration Self-Assessment

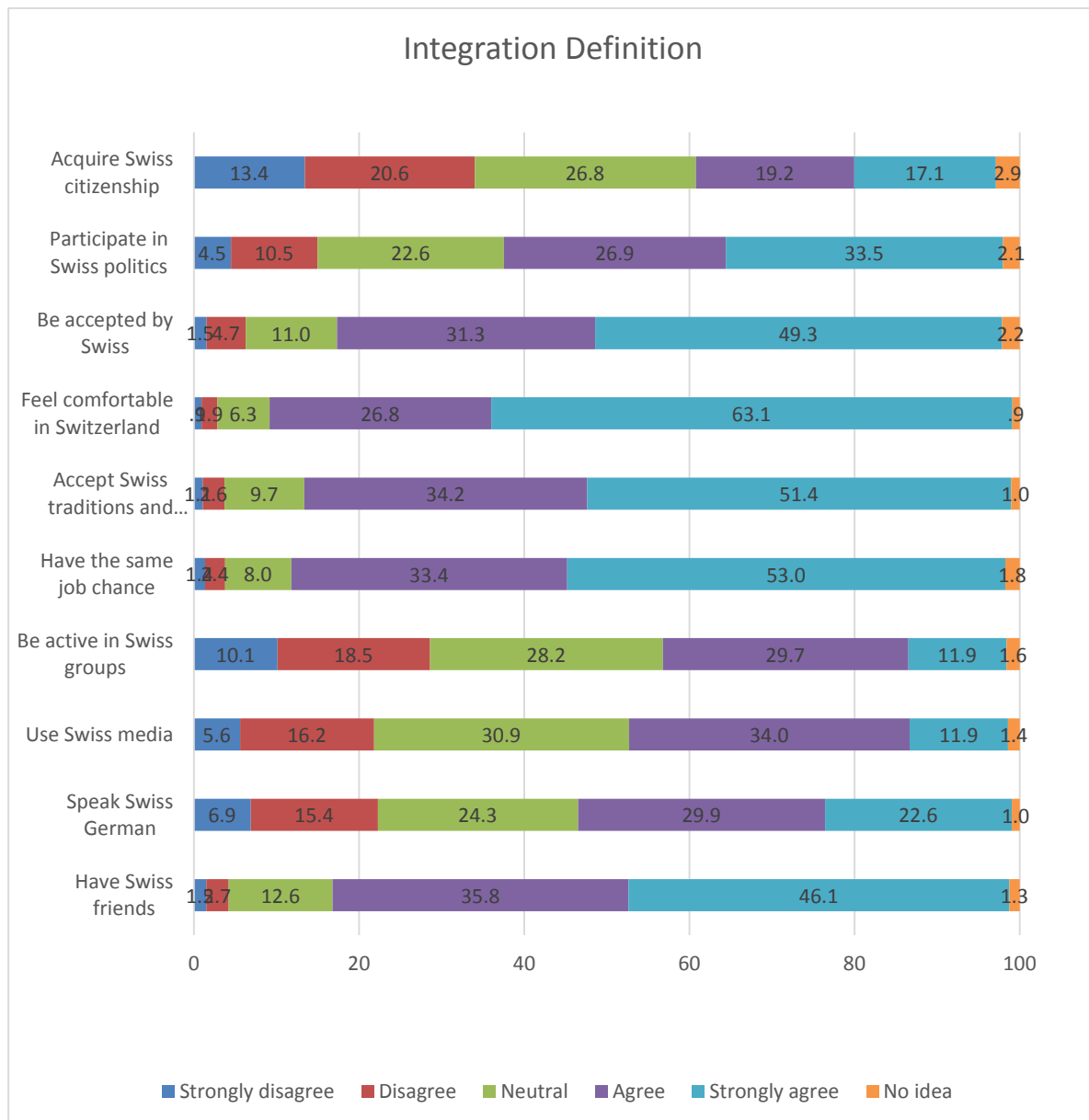


8.8 Integration Definition

In order to show a reflection of the defined integration indicators, and to suggest new integration indicators for future studies as well, the question “What does ‘integrate into Switzerland’ mean to you?” was introduced with five scales from “Strongly disagree” to “Strongly agree”.

Ten statements were listed to be quoted as the meaning of integration. They include to have a circle of Swiss friends, to speak Swiss German, to use Swiss media, to be active in some local group or organization in Switzerland (e.g.: sports club, music band), to have the same chance of getting a job as an average Swiss person, to accept Swiss traditions and culture, to feel comfortable living in Switzerland, to be accepted (by others) as a local person, to participate in Swiss politics or vote, and to acquire a Swiss citizenship.

Figure 62: Integration Definition



Five statements are mostly “strongly agreed” by all of the participants. They are “to feel comfortable living in Switzerland” by 63% of the total participants, “to have the same chance of getting a job as an average Swiss person” by 53% of the total participants, “to accept Swiss traditions and culture” by 51% of the total participants, “to be accepted (by others) as a local person” by 49% of the total participants, and “to have a circle of Swiss friends” by 46% of the total participants.

8.9 Integration Factors and Types

There are altogether 42 questions designed as integration variables. After reducing the dimensions of 42 variables by Factor Analysis, there are twelve factors and one variable. The highly related variables are combined into one factor. The following table shows the new integration factors, their variables, and the meaning they stand for.

Table 42: Integration Factors

Indicators	Factor No.	Factors	Variables	Deleted Variables
Language Competence	1.	High German skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High German Proficiency in Writing • High German Proficiency in Listening • High German Proficiency in Reading • High German Proficiency in Speaking • High German Use Frequency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • English use frequency • Mother language use frequency
	2.	Swiss German skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Swiss German Proficiency in Listening • Swiss German Proficiency in Speaking • Swiss German Use Frequency 	
Social Interaction in Daily Life	3.	Friend Circles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Friend numbers of friends from international society • Friend numbers of friends living in home country • Friend numbers of friends with the same migration background but living in Switzerland 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meeting frequency of friends with the same migration background but living in Switzerland • Meeting frequency of friends in home country
	4.	Social interaction with Swiss friends	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meeting frequency of Swiss friends • Friend numbers of Swiss friends 	
	5.	Social interaction with international friends	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meeting frequency of international friends 	
Psychological Distance towards	6.	Psychological distance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If people from my home country have many Swiss friends • If people from my home country 	0

Swiss Residents		towards Swiss	marry a Swiss <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If I have many Swiss friends • If I marry a Swiss 	
Satisfaction in Switzerland	7.	Satisfaction with migration issue	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Satisfaction with migration policies in Switzerland • Satisfaction with general attitude of Swiss towards migrants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Swiss Media • Swiss society in general
	8.	Satisfaction with work and life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Satisfaction with institute and university in Switzerland • Satisfaction with living situation in Switzerland 	
The Wish to Stay in Switzerland	9.	The wish to stay in Switzerland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To leave Switzerland right after study • To leave Switzerland some day in the future • To Always stay in Switzerland • To apply for the Swiss citizenship 	•
Various Identities	10.	Swiss and Hybrid Identity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Swiss • A member of Swiss city or region • A member of both Switzerland and the home country 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The identity of “A member of a particular continent (eg: European, Asian, etc.)” • A member of the international community of my home country
	11.	Home country Identity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A member of home country • A member of the city or region of home country 	
	12.	Cosmopolitan Identity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cosmopolitan • A member of international academic migrants 	
Integration Self-assessment	13.	Self-assessment	Self-assessment	0

The integration factors show the most important aspects of integration indicators. It is interesting to know if these factors are indeed correlated, and if yes, how they correlate. Before building up an integration cluster, I first used correlation analysis to see the relations among factors. The following table shows that most factors are correlated with each other. Swiss German proficiency is strongly positively correlated with factors such as Swiss and hybrid identity and better self-assessment of integration. Similarly, Swiss and hybrid identity contributes strongly and positively to a better self-assessment of integration. However, the

stronger the home identity or cosmopolitan identity is, the worse the self-assessment of integration is. In addition, the wish to stay in Switzerland is strongly negatively correlated with the home identity, as well. Surprisingly, High German and Swiss German proficiency are not significantly correlated.

Table 43: Integration factors³

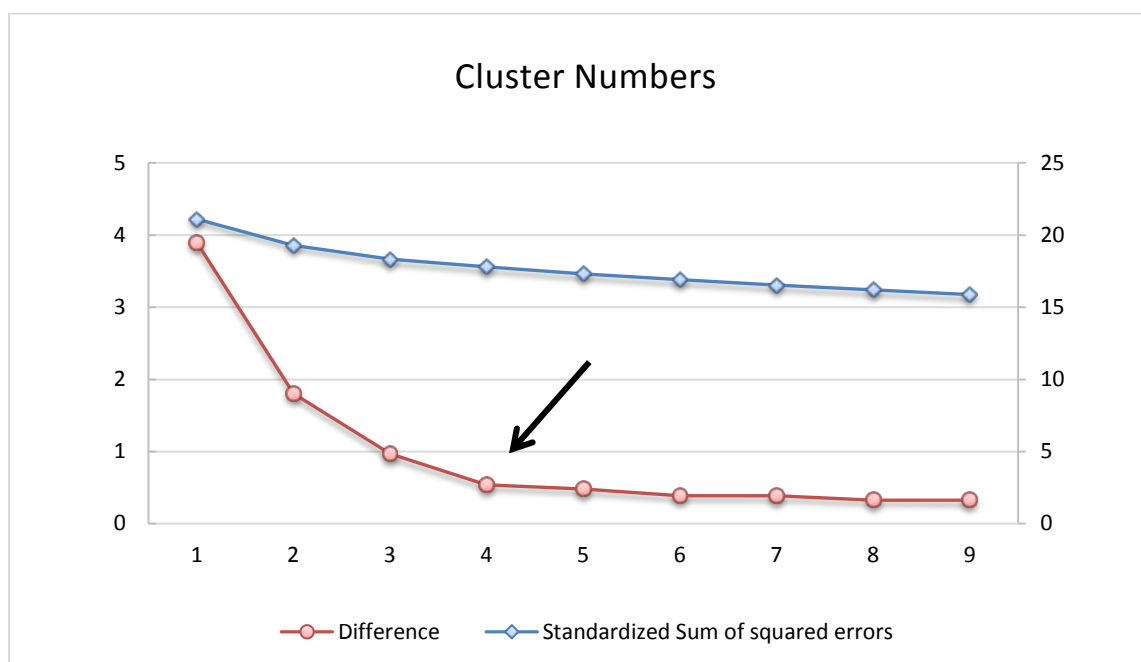
Correlations of Integration Factors													
	High German skills	Swiss German skills	Friend Circles	Social interaction with Swiss friends	Social interaction with international friends	The wish to stay in CH	Psychological Distance	Satisfaction with Migration issue	Satisfaction with work and life	Swiss and hybrid ID	Home ID	Cosmopolitan ID	Zscore: self assessment
High German skills	1												
Swiss German skills	.000	1											
Friend Circles	-.168**	-.112**	1										
Social interaction with Swiss friends	.181**	.478**	.000	1									
Social interaction with international friends	-.152**	-.176**	.000	.000	1								
The wish to stay in CH	.060*	.337**	-.069**	.245**	-.153**	1							
Psychological Distance	.099**	.031	-.024	.171**	.016	.187**	1						
Satisfaction with Migration issue	-.177**	-.029	.037	-.029	.039	.132**	.130**	1					
Satisfaction with work and life	.091**	.082**	.001	.192**	.017	.121**	.118**	.000	1				
Swiss and hybrid ID	.066**	.617**	-.005	.451**	-.130**	.395**	.160**	.098**	.159**	1			
Home ID	-.111**	-.210**	.140**	-.174**	.006	-.215**	-.009	.077**	.005	.000	1		
Cosmopolitan ID	-.221**	-.214**	.165**	-.117**	.215**	-.139**	-.012	-.016	.007	.000	.000	1	
Zscore: self assessment	.265**	.677**	-.113**	.542**	-.151**	.397**	.179**	.057*	.221**	.653**	-.219**	-.198**	1

*, Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). **, Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). ns: not significant

³ Correlation Analysis, bivariate, 2-tailed, Pearson coefficients

In the end, all twelve factors and one z-standardized variable were analyzed through hierarchical cluster analysis⁴ to identify the final integration types. The number of clusters was decided by the scree plot of the difference of the standardized sum of squared errors of the coefficients. Clearly, the red plotted line of the difference of the standardized sum of squared errors turns right sharply after the fourth point. Thus, the following scree plot supports a four-cluster choice.

Figure 63: Scree Plot of Cluster Numbers



Cluster Numbers	Sum of squared errors		
	Not Standardized	Standardized Sum of squared errors	Difference
1	22446.0000	25.00	
2	18945.9363	21.10	3.90
3	17326.2443	19.30	1.80
4	16458.0131	18.33	0.97
5	15974.9058	17.79	0.54
6	15542.3700	17.31	0.48
7	15193.1470	16.92	0.39
8	14846.5833	16.54	0.39
9	14547.8295	16.20	0.33
10	14255.4402	15.88	0.33

⁴ Hierarchical Cluster analysis, with Ward's Method and Squared Euclidean distance interval among clusters.

Therefore, a four-cluster result was generated by a K-means cluster analysis. These clusters was named Type1, 2, 3, and 4. The population of four types together with the distribution of the three compared groups are shown in Table 44.

The largest Type 3 makes up 38% of the whole participants ($N_3=670$). In the total sample, there are two types with almost the same size. Type 1 and Type 4 takes 21-22% of the total sample respectively ($N_1=370$, $N_4=386$). The smallest cluster is the Type 2, which takes up 19% of the total sample ($N_2=330$).

There is a clear division among the three compared groups. At least three integration types are dominant in one group and one type is majorly mixed with two groups. 74% of Type 3 is Swiss students; 75% of Type 4 is German-speaking students; and 98% of Type 2 is non-German-speaking students. Type 1 is mainly mixed with German-speaking students (53%) and non-German-speaking students (38%).

The majority of Swiss students (90.3%) belong to Type 3 ($N=495$). Swiss students are the dominant component of Type 3. Within Type 3, 74% are Swiss students, 20% are German-speaking students ($N=134$) and only 6% are non-German-speaking students ($N=41$). Comparatively, more than half of the non-German-speaking students are in Type 2 ($N=322$). However, there are hardly any Swiss students (0.9%, $N=5$) and German-speaking students (0.5%, $N=3$) in this Type. In fact, Type 2 consists nearly only non-German-speaking students (98%, $N=322$). The majority of German-speaking students are in Type 4 (46.4%, $N=288$) and the rest of them are distributed in Type 1 (31.6%, $N=196$) and Type 3 (21.6%, $N=134$).

Table 44: Integration Clusters and Compare Groups

Integration Clusters	Number and Percentage	Compare Groups			Total
		Swiss Students	German-speaking Students	Non-German-speaking Students	
Type 1	N	35	196	139	370
	% within Cluster of Integration	9.5%	53.0%	37.6%	100.0%
	% within compare group	6.3%	31.6%	24.1%	21.1%
	% of Total	2.0%	11.2%	7.9%	21.1%
Type 2	N	5	3	322	330
	% within Cluster of Integration	1.5%	.9%	97.6%	100.0%
	% within compare group	.9%	.5%	55.8%	18.8%
	% of Total	.3%	.2%	18.3%	18.8%
Type 3	N	495	134	41	670
	% within Cluster of Integration	73.9%	20.0%	6.1%	100.0%
	% within compare group	88.7%	21.6%	7.1%	38.2%
	% of Total	28.2%	7.6%	2.3%	38.2%
Type 4	N	23	288	75	386
	% within Cluster of Integration	6.0%	74.6%	19.4%	100.0%
	% within compare group	4.1%	46.4%	13.0%	22.0%
	% of Total	1.3%	16.4%	4.3%	22.0%
Total	N	558	621	577	1756
	% within Cluster of Integration	31.8%	35.4%	32.9%	100.0%
	% within compare group	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	31.8%	35.4%	32.9%	100.0%

In order to interpret the meaning of the four types of integration, the mean and standard deviation of each integration factors and self-assessment are shown in the table below. ANOVA analysis shows that every integration factor is statistically significant (sig. = .000). The result is in accordance with the distribution of the three groups.

Type 1 has a mixed feature of different foreign students (53% of German-speaking students and 38% of non-German-speaking students). Apparently, this type shows a clearly positive attitude towards the host society. This type has the closest psychological distance towards Swiss residents (mean = .32) and the highest satisfaction with life and work in Switzerland (mean = .19). Besides, Type 1 has the most interaction with international friends (mean = .44) and the strongest cosmopolitan identity (mean = .76).

Type 2 shows the major characteristics of non-German-speaking nations (98%). Their language proficiency in High German (mean = -1.65) and Swiss German (mean = -.77) is the lowest of all the groups. In daily life, Type 2 has the least contacts with Swiss friends (mean = -.85) and the largest friend circles (mean = .43). Additionally, they have the farthest psychological distance towards Swiss (mean = -.34) and are the least satisfied with their life and work in Switzerland (mean = -.32). Consequently, they evaluate their integration into Swiss society as the lowest (mean = -1.09) compared to other types. However, they have the strongest home identity (mean = .39) and they are most satisfied with the migration issue in Switzerland (mean = .29).

Type 3 has the highest mean value of Swiss German proficiency (mean = 1.04), which represents its dominant group, the Swiss students (74%). Within Type 3, the value of social interactions with Swiss friends (mean = .64), the wish to stay in Switzerland (mean = .52), Swiss and hybrid identity (mean = .89), and self-assessment of integration (mean = .90) are all the highest among all types.

Type 4 is the best in High German (mean = .77), which stands for the majority in this group that makes up 75% of this type, German-speaking students. However, Type 4 has the lowest value in several integration factors, such as the friend circles (mean = -.31) and the social interaction with international friends (mean = -.30), the wish to stay in Switzerland (mean = -.45), the satisfaction with the migration issue in Switzerland (mean = -.25), Swiss and hybrid identity (mean = -.77) and cosmopolitan identity (mean = -.68).

Table 45: Integration Factors and Types (Mean/ Standard Deviation) (ANOVA)

Integration Factors	Type1 N=370	Type2 N=330	Type3 N=670	Type4 N=386	Total N=1756
High German skills*	.5(.65)	-1.65(.83)	.1(.37)	.77(.37)	0(1)
Swiss German skills*	-.57(.64)	-.77(.45)	1.04(.49)	-.6(.71)	0(1)
Friend Circles*	.18(1.11)	.43(1)	-.14(.99)	-.31(.068)	0(1)
Social Interaction with Swiss friends*	.04(.84)	-.85(.92)	.64(.74)	-.42(.85)	0(1)
Social Interaction with International friends*	.44(.96)	.41(.97)	-.27(.98)	-.3(.81)	0(1)
The wish to stay in Switzerland*	-.11(.88)	-.42(.78)	.52(.91)	-.45(.92)	0(.98)
Psychological Distance*	.32(.73)	-.34(1.14)	.06(.82)	-.12(.91)	0(.92)
Satisfaction with migration issue*	-.04(1.09)	.29(.98)	.02(.95)	-.25(.94)	0(1)
Satisfaction with Life and Work*	.19(.8)	-.32(1.28)	.15(.9)	-.17(.97)	0(1)
Swiss and Hybrid identity*	-.19(.78)	-.69(.72)	.89(.63)	-.77(.63)	0(1)
Home identity*	-.16(1.01)	.39(.94)	-.3(.97)	.34(.85)	0(1)
Cosmopolitan identity*	.76(.71)	.56(.91)	-.3(.89)	-.68(.72)	0(1)

In order to visualize the distribution of integration factors in the integration types, the mean of the integration factors is recoded into plus and minus symbols to show the degree of strength. The plus symbol shows a positive value and more plus symbols present a stronger degree. The minus symbol shows a negative value.

Thus, the following table (Table 46) shows the clear differences among the four integration types. Type 3 has a positive value in each integration factor in the host society, which shows the strongest affiliation with Swiss identity. On the other hand, Type 3 is negative in home and cosmopolitan identity. However, Type 2 shows almost the opposite trend against Type 3. Type 4 is negative in each integration factor in the host society and evaluates itself as the least integrated, but it has a strong cosmopolitan and home identity. Type 1 shows a welcoming attitude towards the host society and at the same time has a strong cosmopolitan identity. Although Type 4 enjoys a good command of the language of the host society, it

shows unwillingness towards the integration into the host society. Type 4 has a strong home identity but the lowest cosmopolitan identity.

Table 46: The Overview of Integration Types

Types	Type1 N=370	Type2 N=330	Type3 N=670	Type4 N=386
High German skills*	+	---	+	++
Swiss German skills*	--	--	+++	--
Friend Circles*	+	+	-	-
Social Interaction with Swiss friends*	+	--	++	-
Social Interaction with International friends*	+	+	-	-
The wish to stay in Switzerland*	-	-	++	-
Psychological Distance*	+	-	+	-
Satisfaction with migration issue*	-	+	+	-
Satisfaction with Life and Work*	+	-	+	-
Swiss and Hybrid identity*	-	--	++	--
Home identity*	-	+	-	+
Cosmopolitan identity*	++	++	-	--
Self-Assessment*	-	---	++	-
Total (in Percentage)	21%	19%	38%	22%

1) Recode the Mean of Integration Factors: Values >0 and $\leq .5$ is recoded as +; Values $>.5$ and ≤ 1 is recoded as ++; Values >1 and ≤ 1.5 is recoded as +++; Values <0 and $\geq -.5$ is recoded as -; Values $<-.5$ and ≥ -1 is recoded as --; Values <-1 and ≥ -1.5 is recoded as ---.

8.10 Conclusion: Integration Types

As mentioned in Chapter One, Section 2.1.2, Canadian psychologist Berry theorized the acculturation strategies of ethno-cultural groups according to their maintenance of the home

culture and identity, and also their acceptance of the host culture and identity. Based on that, he suggested four acculturation strategies: integration, assimilation, separation, and marginalization.

Table 47: Acculturation Strategies of Ethno-cultural Groups (Berry, 2001, p. 618)

Acculturation Strategies			Maintenance of Heritage Culture and Identity	
			Yes	No
Relationships sought among groups	Yes		Integration	Assimilation
	No		Separation	Marginalization

Based on Berry's acculturation theory and the above interpretation of integration types, I will define the four integration types in this study. However, Berry's acculturation model only pays attention to two societies: host society and home society. This suggests the assumption of this acculturation theory that migrants only live between two dimensions: old and new society. It neglects the possibility of a third society or an international society.

Nevertheless, I argue that migration issue nowadays is more complex than any other time before. Globalization brings the higher mobility of people up higher, which creates more opportunities of international movements and also more international orientations of people. As the chances of global movement are highly increased, migrants, especially young and educated migrants, are no longer trapped into a dual choice between old and new society. International identities and cosmopolitan identities are getting stronger. The results of this study show that the three integration types (Type 1, Type 2 and Type 4) have a stronger cosmopolitan identity than home identity. One scholar has already suggested an international orientation of migrants in his current study. Hepp (Hepp et al., 2011b, p. 244) built up three types of cultural identity and communicative connectivity, which are origin-oriented, ethnic-oriented and world oriented. This is supported by a quantitative study as well. Bonfadelli pointed out that migrants no longer live in either parallel societies or a media ghetto. Furthermore, the international tendency was mentioned as well; youth with migration backgrounds developed their roots from the place they live in and in a relation to international societies (Bonfadelli et al., 2007).

Thus, I suggest a three-dimension integration model:

Table 48: Integration Types

	Home society	Host society	International society
Integration + Cosmopolitan Type 1	No	Yes	Yes
Marginalization + Cosmopolitan Type 2	Yes	No	Yes
Assimilation Type 3	No	Yes	No
Separation Type 4	Yes	No	No

The table above could explain the four integration types in this study. Obviously, Type 3 and Type 4 are close to Berry's definition of Assimilation and Separation, respectively. They both have a single orientation, either strongly connected with the host society, or strongly connected with the home society. However, Type 1 and Type 2 both show an international orientation. Different from the integration type of Berry, Type 1 shows a stronger connection with an international society than the home society. The marginalization type in the definition of Berry's is neither integrated in the host society nor in the home society. However, Type 2 in this study remains a home identity with a stronger cosmopolitan identity. Type 2 is isolated from the host society but yet attached to the international society and home society. Type 2 is named as "Marginalization + Cosmopolitan", because it is marginalized from the host society in the sense of integration in the host society. However, marginalization does not imply a ghetto/marginalized status away from both host and home societies. Here, Type 2 should be distinguished from Type 4, which is separated from the host society. In this study, Type 4 is relatively better integrated than Type 2, because it has a less negative value in self-assessment.

9. Media Use

In this section, the use of both mass media and social media will be discussed. Use frequency, language preferences, interested topics, and use purposes are examined. In the following, the media use behavior will first be demonstrated in the comparison of the three groups. Afterwards, media use will be analyzed according to the four integration types.

9.1 Mass Media Use

Mass media use is discussed separately from social media use because of two reasons. First, due to different attributions of mass media and social media, their types are categorized differently. Second, this study aims at introducing social media use into the existing theoretical frameworks and measuring its applicability. To compare social media use and mass media use would help to see their special features in the integration process.

The media use frequency and media content preference of mass media are investigated. Mass media is categorized into four types: Swiss media, media from the home country, media from other countries, and ethnic media⁵. The language of mass media use was not asked because all German media produced in Switzerland, Germany, and Austria are in High German. It is impossible to distinguish their origin only by language.

9.1.1 Mass Media Use Frequency

In general, Swiss students and German-speaking students consume more media than non-German-speaking students. All in all, Swiss students consume 76% of different kinds of mass media “many times daily”, with German-speaking students consuming 73%, and non-German-speaking students consuming only 50.3% of different mass media “many times daily”.

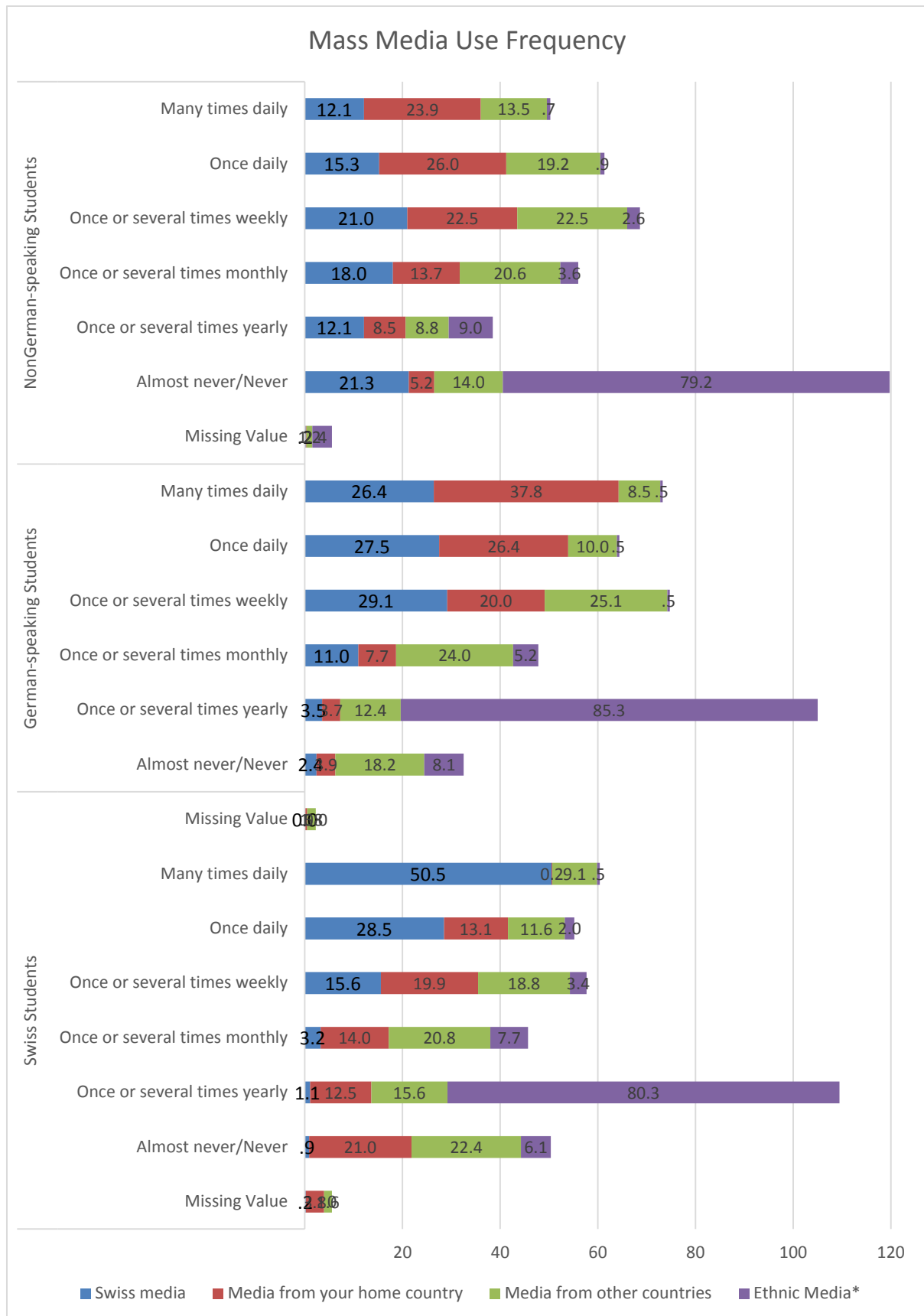
Among the three groups, Swiss students consume Swiss media the most frequently. Half of Swiss students consume Swiss media “many times daily”, compared to 26% of German-speaking students and 12% of non-German-speaking students. German-speaking students

⁵ Ethnic media refer to the media that are produced in Switzerland/Europe but target at the readers with migration background(s). They are usually produced in the ethnic language. For example: Europe Chinese News, Corriere degli italiani ZH.

consume mass media from their home country “many times daily” the most frequently (37.8%), of non-German-speaking students the second most frequently (24%) and Swiss students the least frequently (16%). The consumption of mass media from other countries is relatively low among all groups. 13.5% of non-German-speaking students use mass media from other countries “many times daily” compared to 9.1% of Swiss students and 8.5% of German-speaking students who do so.

Different from the results of many existing studies, ethnic media is not popular among participants. Around 80% of Swiss students and German-speaking students use ethnic media “once or several times yearly”. Non-German-speaking students use ethnic media even less frequently, and 80% of them answered “almost never/never”.

Figure 64: Mass Media Use Frequency



Mass media frequency⁶ is analyzed according to the four integration types. Self-evidently, Type 3 consumes Swiss media the most frequently (mean = 5.26) and Type 2 consumes the least Swiss media (mean = 2.60). Moreover, the Post Hoc test (Bonferroni) shows that regarding Swiss media use, Type 3 has the highest Swiss media consumption and is different from all the other types. Type 1 and Type 4 are similar and consume medium amount of Swiss media. Type 2 is different from all of the other types and consumes the least. The amount of Swiss media consumed is in parallel accordance with the High German proficiency of the four types, for example, Type 2 is the poorest in German proficiency, and it also consumes the least Swiss media.

Among the four types, Type 4 consumes the most media from the home country (mean = 4.73), compared to Type 3 (mean = 3.43) which consumes the least. The Post Hoc test shows that Type 1, 2, and 4 are similar concerning the consumption of media from the home country, however, Type 3 is different from the others. The low consumption of media from their home country also reflects the weak connection that Type 3 has with their home country.

Type 3 and Type 4 are similar in how they use media from other countries. Their consumption is relatively lower (Type 3 mean = 3.08, Type 4 mean = 2.91) than the other two types (Type 1 mean = 3.64, Type 2 mean = 3.68). Accordingly, Type 1 and Type 2 both show a clearer tendency towards international orientation concerning the integration feature.

Apparently, ethnic media is less popular among participants. The consumption of ethnic media is on average much lower than the other media types. The Post Hoc test shows that Type 1, 2, and 4 have a similar pattern of ethnic media use, while Type 3 is different.

⁶ Mass media use is normally distributed.

Table 49: Mass Media Use Frequency and Integration Types (Mean/ Standard Deviation) (ANOVA)

Types	Swiss Media*	Media from home country*	Media from other countries*	Ethnic media*
Type 1 (N=370)	4.34a (1.32)	4.42a (1.50)	3.64a (1.55)	1.12a (.74)
Type 2 (N=330)	2.60b (1.48)	4.46a (1.45)	3.68a (1.60)	1.32b (.93)
Type 3 (N=670)	5.26c (.93)	3.43b (1.80)	3.08b (1.63)	1.14a (.67)
Type 4 (N=386)	4.30a (1.30)	4.73a (1.35)	2.91b (1.53)	1.03a (.52)
Total	4.36 (1.54)	4.12 (1.67)	3.27 (1.62)	1.15 (.72)

- 1) Scale: 1 = Almost never/Never, 2 = Once or several times yearly, 3 = Once or several times monthly, 4 = Once or several times weekly, 5 = Once daily, 6 = Many times daily
- 2) Sig. = .000
- 3) a, b, c and d are used to show if there is significant difference among four integration types. The different alphabet shows the significant different

The following table shows the correlation among integration factors and mass media use frequency. Swiss media consumption is positively correlated with most integration factors such as High German (.43) and Swiss German skills (.466), social interaction with Swiss friends (.388), the wish to stay in Switzerland (.319), psychological distance towards Swiss residents (.186), satisfaction with work and life in Switzerland (.086), Swiss and hybrid identity (.41), and self-assessment (.521). However, the friend circles (-.138), social interaction with international friends (-.165), home identity (-.167), and cosmopolitan identity (-.231) are negatively correlated with Swiss media use. On the contrary, home identity is positively correlated (.31) with the use of media from the home country. There are negative correlations among Swiss German skills (-.334), the wish to stay in Switzerland (-.212), Swiss and hybrid identity (-.233), and self-assessment (-.262) to the use of media from the home country. More obviously, a cosmopolitan identity is positively correlated (.239) with the consumption of media from other countries.

All in all, this table shows that the frequency of mass media use from the host country, home country, and other countries has a correlation with integration factors. The more positive the integration factors are, the more the one consumes Swiss media. On the other hand, a stronger home identity is correlated with a positive consumption of media from the home

country. Similarly, a cosmopolitan identity is positively correlated with the use of media from other countries.

Table 50: Integration Factors and Media Use Frequency (Correlation, bivariate, Pearson)

	Swiss media	Media from your home country	Media from other countries	Ethnic Media*
High German skills	.430**	.053*	-.082**	-.118**
Swiss German skills	.466**	-.334**	-.092**	0.017
Friend Circles	-.138**	.083**	.143**	.107**
Social Interaction with Swiss Friends	.388**	-.189**	-.030 (ns)	.014 (ns)
Social Interaction with International Friends	-.165**	.012 (ns)	.199**	-.003 (ns)
The wish to stay in Switzerland	.319**	-.212**	-.103**	-.031 (ns)
Psychological Distance	.186**	.038 (ns)	-.018 (ns)	-.035 (ns)
Satisfaction with Migration issue	-.034 (ns)	.023 (ns)	-.008 (ns)	.014 (ns)
Satisfaction with work and life	.086**	-.022 (ns)	.027 (ns)	-.064**
Swiss and hybrid identity	.410**	-.233**	-.056*	.019 (ns)
Home identity	-.167**	.310**	.000 (ns)	.055*
Cosmopolitan identity	-.231**	.018 (ns)	.239**	.063**
Zscore: self-assessment	.521**	-.262**	-.088**	-0.041

1) *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); ns: not significant.

To explore the relation between mass media use and daily language use, the media use frequency and daily language preference were analyzed by bivariate correlation analysis using the spearman method. All High German (.353), Swiss German (.522) and English (.279) uses in daily life have a positive correlation with the consumption of Swiss media. Among them all, Swiss German use in daily life has the strongest positive correlation with Swiss media consumption. This means that the more participants use Swiss German language in daily life, the more likely it is that they will consume Swiss media. The use of mother language has a negative correlation with Swiss media use (-.198). High German use in daily

life is positively correlated with the consumption of media from the home country. This correlation is significant, but not strong (.067). Besides, both Swiss German use (-.266) and English use (-.116) have a negative correlation with the consumption of media from the home country. All High German (-.074), Swiss German (-.114), and English (-.261) uses in daily life have a negative correlation with the consumption of media from other countries. Ethnic media use is only negatively correlated (-.106) with High German use but its correlation with other language use is not significant. The mother language use is not significantly correlated with other media consumptions except for Swiss media.

Table 51: Mass Media Use and Daily Language Use Frequency (Correlation, bivariate, Spearman)

	High German Use	Swiss German Use	English use	Mother language use
Swiss media	.353**	.522**	.279**	-.198**
Media from your home country	.067**	-.266**	-.116**	-0.057(ns)
Media from other countries	-.074**	-.114**	-.261**	0.026(ns)
Ethnic Media	-.106**	-0.002(ns)	0.006(ns)	-0.04(ns)

1) *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); ns: not significant.

2) Mother Language: leave blank if your mother language is mentioned above

9.1.2 Mass Media Use – Interesting Topics

The consumption of media contents was investigated as well. Six news topics were selected, including Politics, Economics, Jobs, Education, Sports, and Entertainment/Celebrity. Participants were asked to choose whether they are more interested in Switzerland, in their home country, if they have the same interest in both countries, or if they do not have any interest in the mentioned topic.

In general, participants had a high interest in political and economic topics. Few of them chose “No interest at all” for these two topics. The political topics show a clear division towards the home and host country of the four integration types. Within Type 3, half (49.6%) of it has more interest in political topics in Switzerland, compared to 11% of it that have more interest about their home country, and 34.8% of it that have the same interest. Type 1 and Type 4 show the opposite interests. 47.1% of Type 1 has more interest in political topics

in their home country, compared to only 9.3% of them that have more interest in Switzerland and 13.3% that have an equal interest for both country. Similarly, 59.5% of Type 4 has more interest in political topics in their home country, compared to only 4.9% of them that have more interest in Switzerland. Type 2 shows a dominant interest in political topics in their home country (78.1%).

This division is not so obvious in economic-related news topics. The majority of each type has equal interests for both societies (Type 1, 56.7%, Type 2, 46%, Type 3, 44.5%, Type 4, 58.7%). Besides the majority, more of Type 3 (41.8%) has interests for economic topics in Switzerland, compared to the participants of Type 2 (36.4%) and Type 4 (23.9%) which have more interests in their home country. There is an equal amount of participants in Type 1 that show more interests for economic topics either in Switzerland (18.8%) or in their home country (18.8%).

On average, participants are less interested in sports-related topics, which can be seen by the 28.5% of total participants that chose “No interest at all”. Entertainment and Celebrity topics are the least interesting for participants, where 40% of the total participants have “No interest at all”. The majority of Type 1 (40.3%), Type 2 (46.9%), and Type 4 (47.5%) have more interests for sports-related topics about their home country.

Among all six news topics, Jobs and Education concern the most participants. Type 3 is dominantly interested in Jobs (74.8%) and Education (78.5%) topics in Switzerland, which can be linked with their positive value in their wish to stay in Switzerland. Around half of Type 4 (49.4%) have the same interest in Job topics in both Switzerland and their home country. However, there are more participants from Type 1 (46.6%), Type 2 (43.8%), and Type 4 (31.4%) that have a bigger interest in job topics in Switzerland than in their home country. This similar pattern can be found in Education topics as well.

All in all, for macro-level news topics, such as Politics, Economics, and Sports, the four types show a clear preference of their integration orientation: assimilation in the host society, integration in the host society, or separation and marginalization from the host society. This tendency is strongly expressed in political-related topics. However, when news topics are related with more practical and personal information, such as Job and Education topics,

assimilated type (Type 3) shows the dominant interests in the host society, while the other three integration types also show more interests in the host society. The four types do not show a significant difference in different interests in the home or the host society concerning Entertainment topics.

The media content preference does not necessarily explain the correlation between integration types and media content consumption further. However, this represents the actual situation of international college migrants, who are interested in serious news topics, such as politics, economics, jobs, and education. They tend to care more about what happens in their home country, but are aim-driven migrants. They have more interests in practical topics in their host country, as Jobs and Education, which closely relate to their future and the next step of migration.

Table 52: Politics and Economics Topics and Integration Types

Integration Clusters	Number and Percentage	Politics				Economics				Total
		More about Switzerland	More about my home country	About the same	No interest in it at all	More about Switzerland	More about my home country	About the same	No interest in it at all	
Type 1	N	34	173	141	19	69	69	208	21	367
	% within Clusters of Integration	9.3%	47.1%	38.4%	5.2%	18.8%	18.8%	56.7%	5.7%	100.0%
	% within Corresponding Media topics	8.5%	23.7%	25.9%	25.7%	16.4%	22.1%	23.6%	15.8%	21.0%
Type 2	N	14	253	43	14	35	118	149	22	324
	% within Clusters of Integration	4.3%	78.1%	13.3%	4.3%	10.8%	36.4%	46.0%	6.8%	100.0%
	% within Corresponding Media topics	3.5%	34.7%	7.9%	18.9%	8.3%	37.8%	16.9%	16.5%	18.6%
Type 3	N	332	74	233	31	280	33	298	59	670
	% within Clusters of Integration	49.6%	11.0%	34.8%	4.6%	41.8%	4.9%	44.5%	8.8%	100.0%
	% within Corresponding Media topics	83.2%	10.2%	42.8%	41.9%	66.7%	10.6%	33.8%	44.4%	38.4%
Type 4	N	19	229	127	10	36	92	226	31	385
	% within Clusters of Integration	4.9%	59.5%	33.0%	2.6%	9.4%	23.9%	58.7%	8.1%	100.0%
	% within Corresponding Media topics	4.8%	31.4%	23.3%	13.5%	8.6%	29.5%	25.7%	23.3%	22.1%
Total	N	399	729	544	74	420	312	881	133	1746
	% within Clusters of Integration	22.9%	41.8%	31.2%	4.2%	24.1%	17.9%	50.5%	7.6%	100.0%
	% within Corresponding Media topics	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 53: Sports and Entertainment/Celebrity Topics and Integration Types

Integration Clusters	Number and Percentage	Sports				Entertainment/Celebrity				Total
		More about Switzerland	More about my home country	About the same	No interest in it at all	More about Switzerland	More about my home country	About the same	No interest in it at all	
Type 1	N	22	148	76	121	24	85	77	181	367
	% within Clusters of Integration	6.0%	40.3%	20.7%	33.0%	6.5%	23.2%	21.0%	49.3%	100.0%
	% within Corresponding Media topics	9.5%	23.8%	19.3%	24.3%	9.7%	22.8%	17.7%	26.2%	21.0%
Type 2	N	18	152	71	83	18	105	79	122	324
	% within Clusters of Integration	5.6%	46.9%	21.9%	25.6%	5.6%	32.4%	24.4%	37.7%	100.0%
	% within Corresponding Media topics	7.8%	24.4%	18.0%	16.7%	7.3%	28.2%	18.2%	17.6%	18.6%
Type 3	N	179	140	184	167	188	68	181	233	670
	% within Clusters of Integration	26.7%	20.9%	27.5%	24.9%	28.1%	10.1%	27.0%	34.8%	100.0%
	% within Corresponding Media topics	77.2%	22.5%	46.7%	33.6%	75.8%	18.3%	41.7%	33.7%	38.4%
Type 4	N	13	183	63	126	18	114	97	156	385
	% within Clusters of Integration	3.4%	47.5%	16.4%	32.7%	4.7%	29.6%	25.2%	40.5%	100.0%
	% within Corresponding Media topics	5.6%	29.4%	16.0%	25.4%	7.3%	30.6%	22.4%	22.5%	22.1%
Total	N	232	623	394	497	248	372	434	692	1746
	% within Clusters of Integration	13.3%	35.7%	22.6%	28.5%	14.2%	21.3%	24.9%	39.6%	100.0%
	% within Corresponding Media topics	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 54: Jobs and Education Topics and Integration Types

Integration Clusters	Number and Percentage	Jobs				Education				Total
		More about Switzerland	More about my home country	About the same	No interest in it at all	More about Switzerland	More about my home country	About the same	No interest in it at all	
Type 1	N	171	21	152	23	134	34	183	16	367
	% within Clusters of Integration	46.6%	5.7%	41.4%	6.3%	36.5%	9.3%	49.9%	4.4%	100.0%
	% within Corresponding Media topics	18.3%	17.2%	25.3%	25.8%	15.3%	22.1%	28.1%	25.0%	21.0%
Type 2	N	142	40	128	14	93	69	155	7	324
	% within Clusters of Integration	43.8%	12.3%	39.5%	4.3%	28.7%	21.3%	47.8%	2.2%	100.0%
	% within Corresponding Media topics	15.2%	32.8%	21.3%	15.7%	10.6%	44.8%	23.8%	10.9%	18.6%
Type 3	N	501	7	130	32	526	7	117	20	670
	% within Clusters of Integration	74.8%	1.0%	19.4%	4.8%	78.5%	1.0%	17.5%	3.0%	100.0%
	% within Corresponding Media topics	53.6%	5.7%	21.7%	36.0%	60.0%	4.5%	18.0%	31.3%	38.4%
Type 4	N	121	54	190	20	124	44	196	21	385
	% within Clusters of Integration	31.4%	14.0%	49.4%	5.2%	32.2%	11.4%	50.9%	5.5%	100.0%
	% within Corresponding Media topics	12.9%	44.3%	31.7%	22.5%	14.1%	28.6%	30.1%	32.8%	22.1%
Total	N	935	122	600	89	877	154	651	64	1746
	% within Clusters of Integration	53.6%	7.0%	34.4%	5.1%	50.2%	8.8%	37.3%	3.7%	100.0%
	% within Corresponding Media topics	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

9.2 Social Media Use

Social media is divided into four categories. First, social networks are listed as Facebook, Google+, and LinkedIn. Second, blogs and microblogs are as WordPress, Twitter, Tumblr, and Weibo. Third, picture or video sharing sites are as Youtube, Flickr, and Picasa. Fourth, social bookmarks are listed as Delicious, digg, and Pinboard.

Social media use is discussed from three aspects: social media use frequency, the language of social media use, and social media use purpose. Different from mass media, social media is a form of user-oriented media, which allows users to freely define their media use preference, for example, they can customize the operation language and also consume and post content in unlimited languages. Besides, users are free to post by oral language as well. Swiss German, which is seldom printed in mass media, is more frequently used in social media. Therefore, the language preference of social media is measured as an important factor of media use behavior.

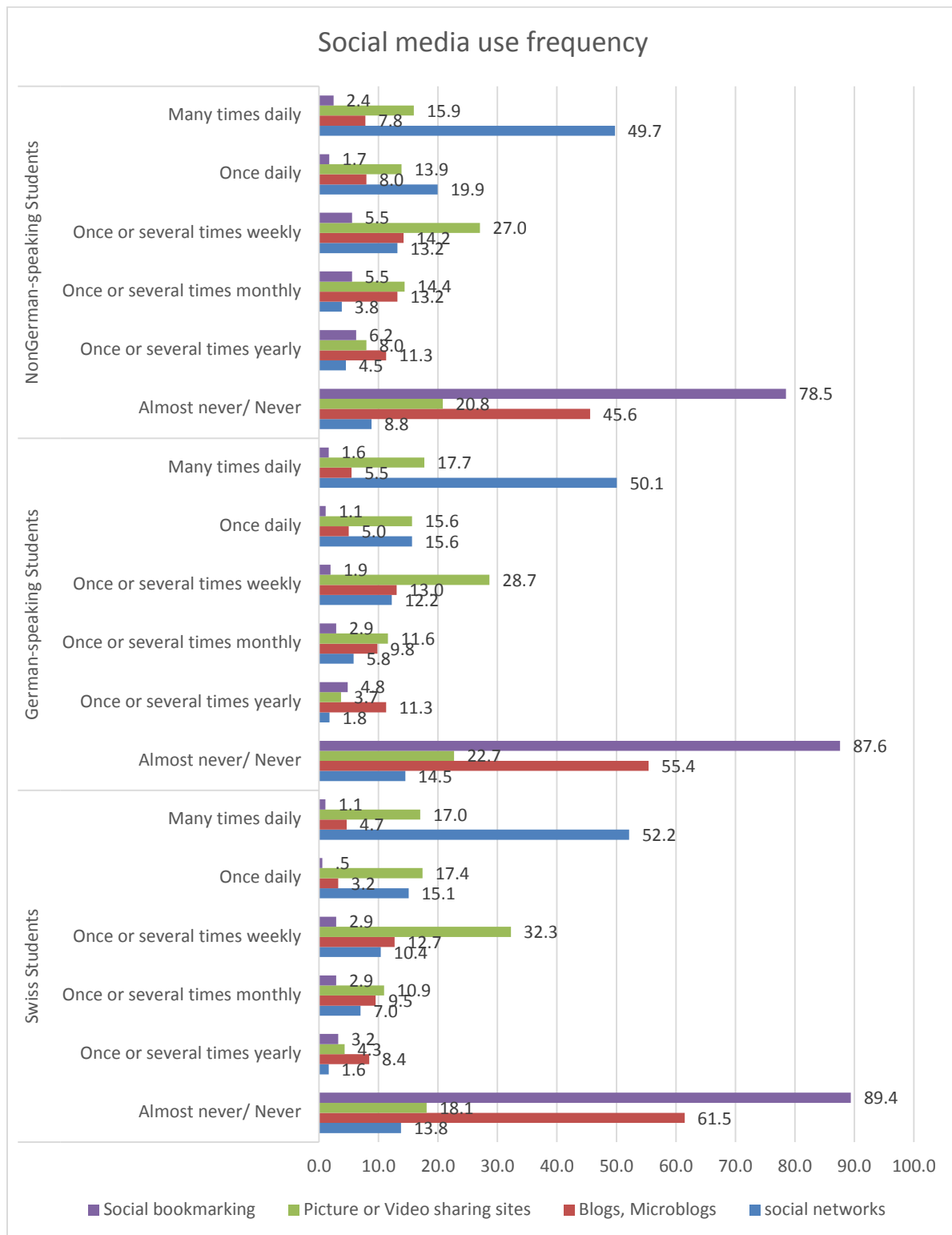
9.2.1 Social Media Use Frequency

All participants frequently use social media. Different from mass media use frequency, the three comparing groups do not show obvious differences in their frequency of social media use. 75% of each group uses four different kinds of social media “many times daily” in total. The proportion of heavy social media users (“many times daily”) shows no difference among three groups. There is a large portion of participants using different social media “once daily”, such as 36% of Swiss students, 37% of German-speaking students, and 44% of non-German-speaking students.

Social networks are the most frequently used social media among participants. Around half of the participants in the three groups, Swiss students (52.2%), German-speaking students (50.1%), and non-German-speaking students (49.7%) use social networks “many times daily”. Around 16 to 17% of participants use picture or video sharing sites “many times daily” (17% of Swiss students, 17.7% of German-speaking students, and 15.9% of non-German-speaking students. The usage pattern of blogs and micro blogs, and social bookmarking sites are also similar.

The preference of social media types is evident; social networks are the most popular social media type among all participants and picture or video sharing sites follow in popularity. Altogether, more than half of the participants (50.6%) use social networks and 17% of them use picture or video sharing sites many times daily. Around 80% of participants use picture or video sharing sites but less frequently than social networks. 15.6% of them use picture or video sharing sites “once daily”, 29.3% of them use them on “a weekly basis” and 12.3% of them use them on “a yearly basis”. In comparison, blogs and micro blogs are much less popular, while the social bookmarking sites are the least popular. 54% of participants “almost never” and “never” use blogs and micro blogs, while 85% of all participants “almost never” or “never” use social bookmarking sites. Only 1.7% of them use blogs and micro blogs “many times daily”.

Figure 65: Social Media Use Frequency



Scale: 1 = Almost never/Never. 2 = Once or several times yearly. 3 = Once or several times monthly. 4 = Once or several times weekly. 5 = Once daily. 6 = Many times daily

Social media use frequency⁷ is analyzed according to the four integration types. ANOVA analysis shows that only two social media types have a significant difference: blogs and micro blogs, and social bookmarking. In accordance with the social media use frequency figure, the mean and standard deviation among the four integration types in different social media types are very similar.

Table 55: Integration Types and Social Media Use Frequency (Mean/ Standard Deviation) (ANOVA)

Types	Social Networks	Blogs, Microblogs*	Picture or Video sharing sites	Social bookmarking*
Type 1 (N=370)	4.78a (1.68)	2.46a (1.62)	3.76a (1.70)	1.45a (1.12)
Type 2 (N=330)	4.77a (1.57)	2.66a (1.72)	3.50a (1.71)	1.62a (1.26)
Type 3 (N=670)	4.71a (1.74)	2.04b (1.54)	3.75a (1.68)	1.28b (0.90)
Type 4 (N=386)	4.55a (1.87)	2.01b (1.50)	3.48a (1.71)	1.17b (0.66)
Total	4.70 (1.73)	2.24 (1.60)	3.65 (1.70)	1.36 (0.99)

- 1) Scale: 1 = Almost never/Never, 2 = Once or several times yearly, 3 = Once or several times monthly, 4 = Once or several times weekly, 5 = Once daily, 6 = Many times daily
 2) Sig. = .000

The following table shows the correlation among integration factors and social media use frequency. It shows that some integration factors are correlated with the consumption of different social media types. However, the Pearson's r does not show a strong relationship (close to 0).

⁷ Social media use frequency is normally distributed.

Table 56: Integration Factors and Social Media Use Frequency (Correlation, bivariate, Pearson)

	Social networks	Blogs. Microblogs	Picture or Video sharing sites	Social bookmarking
High German skills	-0.021	-.096**	0.011	-.113**
Swiss German skills	-0.004	-.074**	.059*	-.057*
Friend Circles	.205**	.100**	.115**	.129**
Social Interaction with Swiss Friends	.149**	-0.022	.160**	-0.011
Social Interaction with International Friends	-0.001	.113**	0.001	.081**
The wish to stay in Switzerland	-.059*	-.107**	-.058*	-.053*
Psychological Distance	0.029	0.02	-0.027	-0.011
Satisfaction with Migration issue	-0.013	-0.014	-0.029	.066**
Satisfaction with work and life	0.006	-0.007	0.01	-.053*
Swiss and hybrid identity	.086**	-0.046	.056*	0.002
Home identity	.176**	.061*	.049*	.047*
Cosmopolitan identity	0.044	.155**	0.011	.154**
Zscore: self-assessment	0.037	-.096**	.064**	-.077**

1) *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); ns: not significant.

9.2.2 The Language of Social Media Use

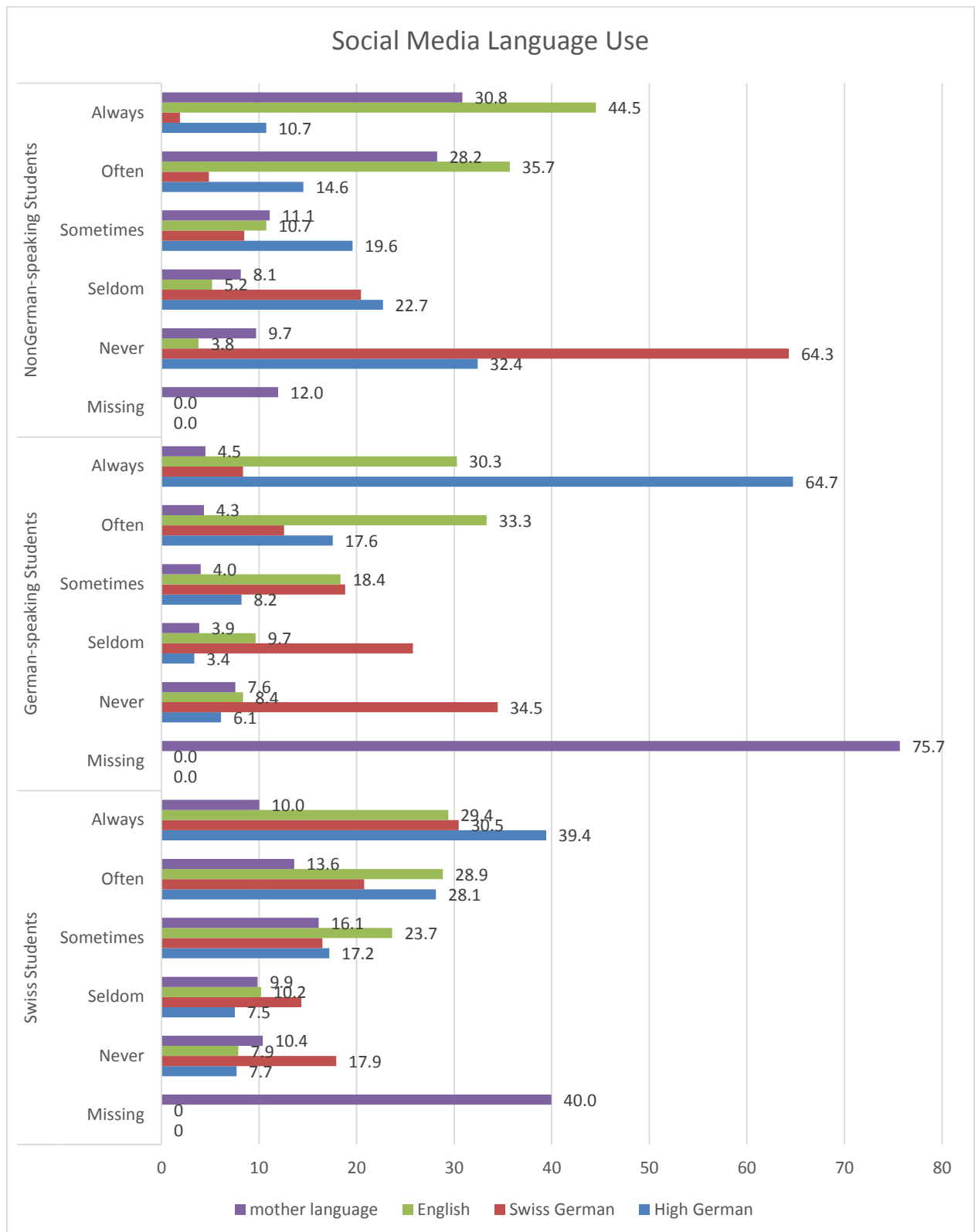
The language of social media use refers to a general consumption behavior of language choice. All kinds of activities, such as reading, posting, or listening to content in different languages on social media, are referred to as the language preference of social media use. Participants are asked to recall their general language consumption on social media and give the frequency of this consumption.

Apparently, the differences among the language choices of social media use are evident. Swiss students tend to use a mixture of languages. 39.4% of them “always” use High German, 30.5% of them “always” use Swiss German; and 29.4% of them “always” use English. High German is the dominant language among German-speaking students, where 65% of them “always” use High German and 30% of them “always” use English. Different from the other two groups, non-German-speaking students use English the most frequently, and more than their mother languages. 44.5% of them “always” use English and 30.8% of them “always” use their mother languages⁸.

English is the most welcomed language among all participants, although English is not the mother language of most. More than 30% of the total participants always use English on social media. Non-German-speaking students show a stronger tendency of international-oriented consumption. They use English more often than they use their mother languages. Correspondingly, they also consume more mass media from other countries.

⁸ The choice of mother language is asked to leave blank if it is High German, Swiss German, and English.

Figure 66: Social Media Language Use



- 1) Scale: 1 = Almost never/Never. 2 = Once or several times yearly. 3 = Once or several times monthly. 4 = Once or several times weekly. 5 = Once daily. 6 = Many times daily
- 2) Missing= if your mother language is already mentioned (High German. Swiss German. English)

The language of social media use⁹ is analyzed according to the four integration types. The Post Hoc test (Bonferroni) shows that regarding High German use, Type 1 and Type 3 are different from all the other types. They both use High German relatively frequently (Type 1 mean = 3.88, Type 3 mean = 3.9). Type 4 is different from all the other types and it uses High German the most frequently (mean = 4.18), and Type 2 also is different from all the other types using High German the least frequently (mean = 1.79). In accordance with the High German proficiency of the four types, Type 2 is the poorest in the German language.

Among the four types, Type 3 uses the most Swiss German (mean = 3.39), compared to Type 2 (mean = 1.22) which consumes Swiss German the least. The Post Hoc test shows that Type 1 and Type 4 are similar concerning the use of Swiss German. They both use a medium amount of Swiss German (Type 1 mean = 2.09, Type 4 mean = 2.02). The high consumption of Swiss German also reflects the assimilation status of Type 3 with the host country.

Type 1 and Type 2 are similar in using English on social media. Their consumptions are relatively higher (Type 1 mean = 4.07, Type 2 mean = 4.26) than Type 3 (mean = 3.63) and Type 4 (mean = 3.45). Accordingly Type 1 and Type 2 also consume more media from other countries. Both mass media consumption and English usage on social media show that Type 1 and Type 2 have a stronger demand for international information.

Type 2 uses the mother language (mean = 3.27) on social media much more frequently than the other three types (Type 1 mean = 1.78, Type 3 mean = 1.72, Type 4 mean = 1.13). However, since the biggest population in Type 1, Type 3, and Type 4 are Swiss students and German-speaking students, their mother language is already High German or Swiss German. This can result in the low value of “social media in mother language”.

⁹ The language of social media use is normally distributed.

Table 57: The Language of Social Media Use and Integration Types (Mean/ Standard Deviation) (ANOVA)

Types	Social Media in High German*	Social Media in Swiss German*	Social Media in English*	Social Media in Mother language*
Type 1 (N=370)	3.88a (1.30)	2.09a (1.10)	4.07a (1.11)	1.78a (1.98)
Type 2 (N=330)	1.79b (0.93)	1.22b (0.52)	4.26a (0.94)	3.27b (1.75)
Type 3 (N=670)	3.90a (1.24)	3.39c (1.44)	3.63b (1.22)	1.72a (1.79)
Type 4 (N=386)	4.18c (1.21)	2.02a (1.16)	3.45b (1.24)	1.13c (1.84)
Total	3.56 (1.47)	2.41 (1.44)	3.80 (1.19)	1.89 (1.97)

1) Scale: 1 = Almost never/Never, 2 = Once or several times yearly, 3 = Once or several times monthly, 4 = Once or several times weekly, 5 = Once daily, 6 = Many times daily

2) Sig. = .000

3) a, b, c and d are used to show if there is significant difference among four integration types. The different alphabet shows the significant different

4) Mother language: leave it blank if your mother language is already mentioned

The following table shows the correlation among integration factors and the language of social media use. Both High German and Swiss German use preferences are positively correlated with most integration factors: High German (.644, .212), Swiss German skills (.175, .577), social interaction with Swiss friends (.270, .423), the wish to stay in Switzerland (.070, .257), psychological distance towards Swiss (.083, .094), satisfaction with work and life in Switzerland (.059, .101), Swiss and hybrid identity (.185, .471) and self-assessment (.306, .492). However, the friend circles (-.053, -.063), social interaction with international friends (-.15, -.139), the home (-.048, -.126), and the cosmopolitan identity (-.183, -.178) are negatively correlated with High German and Swiss German use, respectively.

On the contrary, friend circles (.193), social interaction with international friends (.175), home identity (.57), and the cosmopolitan identity (.244) are positively correlated with the use of English on social media. It is also the same with the use of mother language on social media, which is positively correlated with the friend circles (.175), social interaction with international friends (.079), home identity (.156), and cosmopolitan identity (.168). Both English use and mother language use are negatively correlated with the rest of the integration factors.

High German use has a strong correlation with High German skills (.644), and self-assessment of integration (.306), Swiss German use has a strong correlation with Swiss German skills (.577), Swiss and hybrid identity (.471), and self-assessment of integration (.492), and English use has a relatively stronger correlation with cosmopolitan identity (.244).

This table shows that the language preference on social media has a stronger correlation with integration factors than the social media use frequency. The more positive the integration factors are, the more the one consumes social media in the host language (High German and Swiss German). On the other hand, a stronger home identity is correlated with a positive consumption of mother languages and English. Similarly, a cosmopolitan identity is positively correlated with the use of English.

Table 58: Integration Factors and Social Media Use Language (Correlation, bivariate, Pearson)

	Social Media in High German	Social Media in Swiss German	Social Media in English	Social Media in Mother language
High German skills	.644**	.212**	-.160**	-.393**
Swiss German skills	.175**	.577**	-.089**	-.116**
Friend Circles	-.053*	-.063**	.193**	.175**
Social Interaction with Swiss Friends	.270**	.423**	0.036	-.080**
Social Interaction with International Friends	-.150**	-.139**	.175**	.079**
The wish to stay in Switzerland	.070**	.257**	-.161**	-.058*
Psychological Distance	.083**	.094**	-.023(ns)	-.035(ns)
Satisfaction with Migration issue	-.175**	-.011(ns)	-.008(ns)	.145**
Satisfaction with work and life	.059*	.101**	.013(ns)	-.017(ns)
Swiss and hybrid identity	.185**	.471**	-.044(ns)	-.016(ns)
Home identity	-.048*	-.126**	.057*	.156**
Cosmopolitan identity	-.183**	-.178**	.244**	.168**
Zscore: self-assessment	.306**	.492**	-.108**	-.100**

1) *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); ns: not significant.

To explore the relation between social media language use and daily language use, they are analyzed by bivariate correlation analysis with the spearman method. All High German (.566), Swiss German (.308), and English (.299) uses in daily life have a positive correlation with the consumption of social media in High German. Among them, High German use in daily life has the strongest correlation (.566) with media consumption in High German. This means the more participants which use High German language in daily life, the more likely that they will consume High German on social media. But the mother language use has a negative correlation with media consumption in High German (-.168). Similarly, All High German (.225), Swiss German (.568), and English (.282) uses in daily life have a positive correlation with the consumption of social media in Swiss German. Among them, Swiss German use in daily life has the strongest correlation (.568) with media consumption in Swiss German. This means that the more participants which use Swiss German language in daily life, the more likely that they will consume Swiss German on social media. Again, the mother language use has a negative correlation with media consumption in High German (-.180). Surprisingly, social media consumption in English is negatively correlated with High German (-.140), Swiss German (-.126) and English (-.466) uses in daily life. It is only positively correlated (.102) with mother language uses in daily life. The social media consumption in mother language is negatively correlated with all language uses in daily life, including High German (-.338), Swiss German (-.204), English (-.099), and the mother language (-.164).

The social media language consumption reflects the daily language use preference of High German and Swiss German. However, it needs to be further investigated if the use of more English in daily life, makes it less likely that the one will consume social media in English.

Table 59: Social Media Use Language and Daily Language Use Frequency (Correlation, bivariate, Spearman)

	High German Use	Swiss German Use	English use	Mother language use
Social media in High German	.566**	.308**	.299**	-.168**
Social media in Swiss German	.225**	.568**	.282**	-.180**
Social media in English	-.140**	-.126**	-.466**	.102**
Social media in Mother language	-.338**	-.204**	-.099**	-.164**

1) *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); ns: not significant.

2) Mother Language: leave blank if your mother language is mentioned above

9.2.3 The Purpose of Social Media Use

The purpose of social media use was investigated as well. Social media use purposes are designed into three aspects: social networking, information acquisition, and private interests. All questions to these three aspects were settled with three dimensions: home connection, host connection, and international connection. Participants were asked to choose how important these purposes are for them to use social media.

In general, the social networking function of social media is the most important purpose of using social media. The average total mean of “to keep in contact with people” is the highest among “other purposes” (3.03 to 3.99). The average total mean of “to get news” is from 2.59 to 2.96, which makes it the second highest purpose of use. It is worth it to mention that the use of social media “as a habit” is important for participants as well (the average total mean = 3.21). ANOVA analysis shows that two purposes: “to relax and kill the time” and “other reasons” are not significant.

Concerning “social networking” purpose, “to keep contact with people in my home country” and “to keep contact with international people” are the two most important ones. It shows that social media is used as a communication tool to maintain long-distance relationships. Type 1 (mean = 4.23), Type 2 (mean = 4.27), and Type 4 (mean = 4.19) use social media frequently to keep in contact with people in their home countries, compared to Type 3 with the lowest demand (mean = 3.58). Again, Type 1 also shows its international orientation in social networking. Type 1 has the highest mean (= 4.31) among all groups in “keeping in contact with international people”, compared to Type 2 (mean = 3.97), Type 3 (mean = 3.88) and Type 4 (mean = 3.69). Similarly, Type 4 shows its home orientation in social networking as well. Type 4 has the highest mean (= 3.34) among all groups in “keeping contact with people of their migration origin in Switzerland”. However, Type 4 does not show its separation feature in “keeping contact with local Swiss people”. The value of Type 3 (mean = 3.45) is quite similar with integration type (Type 1, mean = 3.69). For Type 3, which is defined as assimilated type, the most important reason to use social media is to keep contact with local Swiss people (mean = 3.98). This matches their assimilation status in the host society.

In the purpose of information acquisition, to get news from the home country and to get international news are more important for participants. Type 2, has the strongest purpose in

getting news from the home country (mean = 3.52) and from international society (mean = 3.22). Type 3 shows the largest interest in “getting news about Switzerland” (mean = 2.86).

Compared with the other two social media use purpose, private interest is found to be not very important. But evidently, it shows that social media use is becoming a habit among the participants in total (mean = 3.21).

In conclusion, the four integration types show their diverse integration orientation in social media use purposes. Integrated and international Type 1 has more mixed purposes, which include to keep in contact with people in their home country and from international society, and also to get news about their home country and about international society. Meanwhile, marginalized and international Type 2 tend to use social media for keeping contact with people in their home country, and to get news about both their home country and international society. “To keep contact with local Swiss people” and “to get news about Switzerland” are the main two reasons for Assimilated Type 3 to use social media. Separated Type 4 mainly uses social media to keep in contact with people from their home country and to get news about their home country.

Different from mass media use, in relation to international orientation, all four types show a relatively high value in keeping contact with international friends and getting international news, on average. This reflects the nature of new online media, on the other side, a more international and without-borders oriented media type. Whether the change of media characters brought the changes in media consumption behaviors is set as a hypothesis in this study, but it still requires further investigations.

Table 60: Social Media Use Purpose and Integration Types (Mean/ Standard Deviation) (ANOVA)

Types	To keep in contact with people of my migration origin in Switzerland and*	To keep in contact with people in my home country*	To keep in contact with local Swiss people*	To keep in contact with international people*	To get news about Switzerland and*	To get news about my home country*	To get international news*	To post about myself*	To learn foreign language *	To relax and kill the time (ns)	As a habit*	Other reasons (ns)
Type 1 (N=370)	3.08 (1.59)	4.23 (1.13)	3.69 (1.27)	4.31 (1.05)	2.57 (1.35)	2.98 (1.36)	2.96 (1.41)	2.42 (1.32)	2.02 (1.27)	3.32 (1.33)	3.19 (1.30)	1.95 (1.34)
Type 2 (N=330)	2.70 (1.44)	4.27 (1.13)	2.80 (1.27)	3.97 (1.13)	2.47 (1.28)	3.52 (1.39)	3.22 (1.33)	2.42 (1.31)	2.06 (1.25)	3.37 (1.30)	3.03 (1.29)	1.69 (1.12)
Type 3 (N=670)	2.98 (1.49)	3.58 (1.45)	3.98 (1.24)	3.88 (1.30)	2.86 (1.39)	2.75 (1.34)	2.85 (1.40)	2.24 (1.21)	1.93 (1.20)	3.34 (1.30)	3.35 (1.25)	1.82 (1.23)
Type 4 (N=386)	3.34 (1.50)	4.19 (1.21)	3.45 (1.39)	3.69 (1.38)	2.24 (1.27)	2.81 (1.43)	2.60 (1.43)	2.08 (1.18)	1.72 (1.12)	3.23 (1.34)	3.13 (1.35)	1.83 (1.26)
Total	3.03 (1.52)	3.99 (1.31)	3.58 (1.36)	3.95 (1.26)	2.59 (1.36)	2.96 (1.40)	2.89 (1.41)	2.28 (1.25)	1.93 (1.22)	3.32 (1.31)	3.21 (1.29)	1.82 (1.24)
N	1596	1609	1618	1610	1603	1598	1602	1614	1601	1605	1598	977

1) Scale: 1 = Almost never/Never, 2 = Once or several times yearly, 3 = Once or several times monthly, 4 = Once or several times weekly, 5 = Once daily, 6 = Many times daily

2) *:Sig. = .000, ns: not significant.

9.3 Conclusion: Mass Media Use and Social Media Use

The four integration types show their different preferences in both mass media and social media use, but in accordance with their integration orientation. When looking at integration with an international orientation, Type 1 has a relatively high consumption of host, home, and other media. Marginalized with an international orientation Type 2 has a high consumption of home and other media, but very a low consumption in host media. Both assimilated Type 3 and separated Type 4 have a heavy consumption of media from their host society and media from their home country, but low consumption in media from other countries. In social media consumption, all four types show high consumption in their respective languages as well, Type 1 uses English, Type 2 uses mother language, Type 3 uses Swiss German, and Type 4 uses High German the most frequently. However, different from mass media consumption, all four types show a high consumption of English on social media.

Regarding mass media use frequency, the use of Swiss media has a negative correlation with the use of media from the home country. However, this correlation is not significant (-0.013). It indicates that Swiss media consumption has a negative correlation with Ethnic media consumption (-.059). The consumption of media from other countries has a positive correlation with the consumption of media from the home country (.138) and ethnic media (.053).

Table 61: Mass Media Use (Correlation, bivariate, Spearman)

	Swiss media	Media from your home country	Media from other countries	Ethnic Media*
Swiss media	1			
Media from your home country	-0.013(ns)	1		
Media from other countries	0.012(ns)	.138**	1	
Ethnic Media*	-.059*	-0.018(ns)	.053*	1

1) *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); ns: not significant.

Similarly, the correlation among social media language preference is analyzed as well. More obviously, using social media in High German and in Swiss German is strongly positively correlated (.499) and at the same time they are both negatively correlated with the use of the mother language on social media (High German -.308, Swiss German -.134). However,

English use frequency is positively correlated (.068) with the use of the mother language on social media.

Table 62: The Language Preference of Social Media Use (Correlation, bivariate, Spearman)

	Social Media in High German	Social Media in Swiss German	Social Media in English	Social Media in Mother language
Social Media in High German	1			
Social Media in Swiss German	.449**	1		
Social Media in English	0.044(ns)	-0.008(ns)	1	
Social Media in Mother language	-.308**	-.134**	.068**	1

1) **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); ns: not significant.

2) Mother language: leave blank if your mother language is mentioned above.

At last, the relation between social media use and mass media use was analyzed via bivariate correlation with the spearman method. Clearly, social media consumption in both High German (.366) and Swiss German (.446) has a positive correlation with the use of Swiss mass media. However, the more frequently the one uses Swiss media, the less he or she will use social media in English (-.130) or in the mother language (-.168). The media use of media from other countries is positively correlated with the social media consumption of English (.272) and the mother language (.073), but negatively correlated with social media consumption of High German (-.056) and Swiss German (-.084).

There is a correlation between mass media use frequency and social media frequency as well, but the correlations are not strong (Spearman's r close to 0). The use of media from other countries is relatively strongly positively correlated (.249) with the use of blogs and micro blogs.

Table 63: Mass Media Use and Social Media Use (Correlation, bivariate, Spearman)

		Mass Media Use Frequency			
		Swiss media	Media from your home country	Media from other countries	Ethnic Media
The Language of Social Media Use	High German	.336**	0.04(ns)	-.056*	-.081**
	Swiss German	.446**	-.153**	-.084**	0.036(ns)
	English	-.130**	0.015(ns)	.272**	0.012(ns)
	Mother language	-.168**	-.082**	.073**	.191**
Social Media Use Frequency	Social networks	0.013(ns)	.079**	.060*	0.009(ns)
	Blogs, Microblogs	-.100**	.093**	.249**	.055*
	Picture or Video sharing sites	0.015(ns)	0.032(ns)	.116**	0.026(ns)
	Social bookmarking	-.118**	.047*	.171**	.089**

1) *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); ns: not significant.

2) Mother Language: leave blank if your mother language is mentioned above

To conclude, the social media use and mass media use have four features. The language preference of social media use a better indicator for the media use behavior of migrants. Social media use shows an international orientation no matter what integration strategies migrants have. The social media consumption in the host language is positively correlated with the consumption of mass media from the host country. Ethnic media is not significant among participants in this study.

10. Media Effects and Integration

Based on the findings of Section Eight and Section Nine, the role of media use and its effects on integration will be discussed in this section. The role of media use is also discussed in relation with social demographics and migration backgrounds.

10.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study attempts to answer the main research question by applying a quantitative survey among students with migration backgrounds at universities in German-speaking Switzerland.

Main research question: *Are different forms of media use by different migrant groups correlated with different integration strategies in the host society?*

As is discussed in Section Nine, there are different forms of both mass media and social media use, in terms of the frequency of using mass media from home, host, and other countries, and also language preferences of social media. In addition, the interesting news topics in mass media and the purposes of using social media vary among participants. Second, there is a correlation between media use and integration types.

Sub research question one: *Are there differences among various migrant groups concerning media use behaviors and integration types?*

There are differences among migrant groups concerning media use behaviors and integration types. It is very obvious that both Swiss students and German-speaking students consume more mass media from their home country and use their mother languages (Swiss German and High German) on social media. The majority of them are also tapped into certain integration types. For example, 88.7% of Swiss students are in the assimilated type, and 97.6% of the marginalized type are non-German-speaking students. However, different integration types have their regarding dominant migrant groups, but migrant groups do not necessarily belong to single integration types. For example, 21.6% of German-speaking students are assimilated, 31.6% of them are integrated, and 46.4% of them are separated. The same applies to non-German-speaking students, 7.1% of them are assimilated, 24.1% of them are integrated, 13% of them are separated, and 55.8% of them are marginalized.

Sub research question two: *Are there differences between social media use and mass media consumptions? If yes, do these differences influence integration types?*

There is a positive correlation between social media use in High German and Swiss German, and the frequency of using Swiss media. Social media use in Swiss German is negatively correlated with the frequency of using mass media from the home country and the frequency of using mass media from other countries. However, the correlation between mass media use frequency and social media use frequency are not strong. Social media use shows a more international orientation than mass media use. All participants consume social media in a relatively high amount of English, however, the use of mass media from other countries are only obvious in two integration types. These differences might have an influence on the international-oriented integration type.

In the following, all five of the hypotheses will be answered.

H1 *There are certain types of integration. It is possible to describe them and distinguish them from each other.*

There are four integration types in respect to the three-dimensions of home, host, and international society. Assimilation, Integration and Cosmopolitan, Separation, and Marginalization and Cosmopolitan are the integration types defined in this study.

H2 *The consumption of media from the host country or in the host language has a positive correlation with one's integration extent in the host country.*

This hypothesis is not completely true. The separated type in this study has a relatively high consumption of mass media from both home and host countries. The consumption of mass media from host countries is similar to the consumption of the integrated type. Similarly, both separated and integrated types frequently use High German and Swiss German on social media. Therefore, a positive integration extent in the host society indicates a relatively high consumption of media from the host country or in the host language. But a high consumption of media from host country or in the host language does not necessarily correlated to a better integration situation in the host country.

H3 *The consumption of media from the home country or in the home language has a negative correlation with one's integration extent in the host country.*

This hypothesis is not completely true. The integrated type in this study has a relatively high consumption of mass media from both home and host countries. Their consumption of mass media from host countries is similar as the consumption of the separated type. Similarly, both separated and integrated types frequently use High German and Swiss German on social media. Therefore, a separated integration extent in the host society indicates a relatively high consumption of media from the home country or in the home language. On the other hand, a high consumption of media from the home country or in the home language does not necessarily correlated to a negative integration situation in the host country.

H4 *The social media use preferences in the host or home language is in positive correlation with the mass media use preferences.*

This is true for both Swiss German and High German consumption on social media, which are intensively investigated in this study. The language of social media use in Swiss German (.446) and High German (.336) are positively correlated with the frequency of using Swiss mass media. The language of social media use in English is positively correlated (.272) with the frequency of using mass media from other countries. But whether media from other countries is in English or in other languages are not specified. Thus, this study cannot state if this correlation applies to other languages.

H5 *If an international (English)-oriented media use consumption and integration type exists.*

There is an English-oriented social media consumption pattern. English use on social media is the most frequent among all participants (mean=3.8), compared to High German (mean=3.56), Swiss German (mean=2.41) and the mother language (mean=1.89). All four integration types have a high consumption of English on social media. Similarly, two integration types show an international orientation, which were defined as Integration and Cosmopolitan, and Marginalization and Cosmopolitan.

10.2 Media Use, Integration, and Social Demographic Factors

In order to discuss the correlation of media use and integration in a relation with some other factors, regression analysis was conducted on the following. Ordinal Regression Analysis with Complementary Log-log (Clog-log) was applied to analyze the correlation among media use, integration, and other factors. Four integration types are considered to be ordinal variable: Separation, Marginalization and Cosmopolitan, Integration and Cosmopolitan, and Assimilation.

The four integration types were recoded into order from Separation to Assimilation in terms of the integration strength. Assimilation is treated therefore as the controlling value. The integration variable was analyzed as a dependent variable. Social demographic variables and media use variables were analyzed as either factors or covariate.

The three social demographic factors of the mother language (Swiss German), the length of stay in Switzerland in the percentage of one's life-time, and if one has family members in

Switzerland (Yes) were introduced into the regression models. Age and gender were analyzed as well, but they are excluded from the final output since they are insignificant in each model.

Three regression models were built up to analyze the impact of the social demographic factors, mass media use, and social media language preference on integration types. In the first model, only social demographic factors and integration types were analyzed, in the second model, both mass media use and social demographic factors were analyzed with integration types, and in the third model, both social media language preference and social demographic factors were analyzed with integration types. The results are illustrated below.

Table 64: Ordinal Regression for Media Use, Integration, and Social Demographic Factors

		Estimate	Odds Ratio	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		Pseudo R-Square
								Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
Integration Types Factors	Separation	-0.50	0.60	0.10	23.41	1.00	0.00	-0.71	-0.30	C=0.56 N=0.60 M=0.31
	Marginalization + Cosmopolitan	0.38	1.47	0.10	15.01	1.00	0.00	0.19	0.58	
	Integration+ Cosmopolitan	1.48	4.41	0.10	209.10	1.00	0.00	1.28	1.68	
	Stay Length in CH	0.04	1.04	0.00	428.64	1.00	0.00	0.04	0.04	
	Mother Language (Swiss German)	1.50	4.46	0.73	4.21	1.00	0.04	0.07	2.92	
	Family members in CH (Yes)	0.24	1.27	0.07	11.49	1.00	0.00	0.10	0.38	
Integration Types Factors	Separation	-0.32	0.73	0.17	3.31	1.00	0.07	-0.65	0.02	C=0.57 N=0.61 M=0.32
	Marginalization + Cosmopolitan	0.59	1.81	0.17	12.12	1.00	0.00	0.26	0.93	
	Integration+ Cosmopolitan	1.75	5.73	0.18	99.44	1.00	0.00	1.40	2.09	
	Stay Length in CH	0.04	1.04	0.00	349.71	1.00	0.00	0.03	0.04	
	Mother Language (Swiss German)	1.41	4.10	0.73	3.76	1.00	0.05	-0.02	2.84	
	Family members in CH (Yes)	0.19	1.20	0.07	6.85	1.00	0.01	0.05	0.33	
	Swiss media	0.13	1.14	0.02	32.19	1.00	0.00	0.09	0.18	
	Media from your home country	-0.07	0.93	0.02	8.36	1.00	0.00	-0.12	-0.02	

	Media from other countries	0.05	1.05	0.02	4.89	1.00	0.03	0.01	0.09	
	Ethnic Media*	-0.03	0.97	0.05	0.57	1.00	0.45	-0.12	0.06	
Integration Types	Separation	-0.02	0.98	0.19	0.01	1.00	0.93	-0.39	0.36	
	Marginalization + Cosmopolitan	0.89	2.44	0.19	22.33	1.00	0.00	0.52	1.26	
	Integration+ Cosmopolitan	2.06	7.83	0.19	113.43	1.00	0.00	1.68	2.44	
Factors	Stay Length in CH	0.04	1.04	0.00	350.10	1.00	0.00	0.03	0.04	C=0.58 N=0.62 M=0.32
	Mother Language (Swiss German)	1.43	4.16	0.73	3.81	1.00	0.05	-0.01	2.86	
	Family members in CH (Yes)	0.22	1.25	0.07	9.50	1.00	0.00	0.08	0.36	
	Social Media in High German	-0.05	0.95	0.03	3.08	1.00	0.08	-0.11	0.01	
	Social Media in Swiss German	0.29	1.34	0.03	71.69	1.00	0.00	0.22	0.36	
	Social Media in English	0.06	1.06	0.03	4.32	1.00	0.04	0.00	0.12	
	Social Media in Mother language	-0.01	0.99	0.02	0.11	1.00	0.74	-0.05	0.04	

1) Age and Gender were analyzed in all models but were not significant in any model.

2) Stay Length in CH: the years stay in Switzerland in the percentage of the life-time

All three models are significant. The results of the first model show that the mother language as Swiss German has a strong positive influence on integration types (OR=4.46, $p=.04$). However, after having introduced mass media use in the second model, mother language is found to not be significant ($p>.05$). Swiss media use ($p=.00$), the use of media from the home country ($p=.00$), and the use of media from other countries ($p=.03$) are significant, which means that mass media use has an impact on integration situations. Besides, Swiss media use has a positive influence (OR=1.14, >1), while the use of media from the home country has a negative influence (OR=0.93, <1). In the third model, both social media language preference of Swiss German ($p=.00$) and English ($p=.04$) are significant, which indicates the influence of the usage of these two languages on social media in integration results. Both Swiss German (OR=1.34, >1) and English (OR=1.06, >1) preference on social media have a positive influence on integration types.

All in all, the ordinal regression analysis shows that both mass media use and social media language use have an influence on the integration situation. In the second model (C-R²=.57, N-R²=.61, M-R²=.32) and the third model (C-R²=.58, N-R²=.62, M-R²=.32), the pseudo R-

square increases slightly comparing to the first model ($C-R^2=.56$, $N-R^2=.60$, $M-R^2=.31$). Therefore, there is no reason to reject the influence of both mass media use and social media language use in the process of integration.

10.3 Conclusion

To conclude, this study provides empirical evidences for integration indicators, media use patterns, and the correlation between media use and integration.

The effective Integration factors are language proficiency of both High German and Swiss German, as well as the daily frequency of using both languages, friend circles, social interaction with friends from the host country, social interaction with international friends, the wish to stay in the host country, psychological distance towards host residents, host identity, home identity, cosmopolitan identities, and self-assessment of integration in the host country.

The satisfaction factor does not appear as a strong index towards the integration extent regarding the host society. Both satisfaction with the migration issue and satisfaction with life and work could not effectively explain or be explained by the integration types or their correlated media use behavior. Whether the satisfaction factor is an effective integration indicator, or if its effectiveness in this study should be explained by personal experience in detail, should be explored further in the continuous studies.

Cosmopolitan identity is a reliable factor to use for identifying an international oriented type. Together with the identity of “A member of international academic migrants”, cosmopolitan identity shows a strong indicator for an international orientation. Cosmopolitan identity as one integration factor is positively correlated with mass media consumption from other countries (.239, $p<.001$) and social media consumption in English (.244, $p<.001$).

Media use has a correlation with integration types. Therefore, a separated integration extent in the host society indicates a relatively high consumption of media from the home country or in home language. The same goes for assimilated and integrated types with high consumption of media from the host country or in the host language. But conversely, it is not necessarily true. A high/low consumption of media from the host country or in the host language does not necessarily correlate to a better/worse integration situation in the host country.

Chapter Four: Summary and Conclusion

“When people find themselves unable to control the world, they simply shrink the world to the size of their community (Manuel Castells 1987, p.232).”

In this chapter, I will sum up the whole study. First, I will review the whole study by presenting its major research questions, approaches, and research methods and then I will summarize the central findings, which were discussed in Chapter Three. Second, I will discuss the contributions and shortcomings of this study, in to the purpose of providing an outlook into future studies.

11. Summary

11.1 Goals and Methods of this Study

This study is designed with the major research question, “Are different forms of media use by different migrant groups correlated with different integration strategies in the host society?” and the two sub research questions, “Are there differences among various migrant groups concerning media use behaviors and integration types?” and “Are there differences between social media use and mass media consumptions? If yes, do these differences influence integration types?” This study attempts to answer the research questions by applying a quantitative survey among students with migration backgrounds at universities in German-speaking Switzerland.

People with migration backgrounds are defined as someone who has at least one parents born outside of the host country (Switzerland). Students are defined as any person who is registered as a full-time student in a Bachelor, Master or Ph.D. program at seven universities in German-speaking Switzerland, at the time when the online survey was sent out.

An online standardized survey was applied as the major research method of this study. The survey was designed bilingually in German and in English. An invitation email containing the link to the survey was sent through university administrative accounts to the registered students at this university. The survey was launched from the 16th April, 2013 and was active until the 30th June, 2013.

In the end, 5,189 people opened the survey link, 4,308 people proceeded after seeing the first page, and 1,930 people finished whole survey. After filtering out participants who did not fit the definition of students with migration backgrounds, the total participants which were taken into analysis was 1,756.

11.2 Central Findings of this Study

This study has five key findings.

Different migrant groups have distinguished differences regarding language use preference, media use behavior, and integration types.

Both Swiss students and German-speaking students tend to use their mother languages in daily life. For example, 83% of Swiss students always use Swiss German and 85% of German-speaking students always use High German. Differently, non-German-speaking students use English more often, where 60% of them use English the most frequently compared to 21% of them who always use their mother languages. In contrast, only 27% of German-speaking students and 18% of Swiss students “always” use English.

Among the three groups, Swiss students consume Swiss media the most frequently. Half of Swiss students consume Swiss media “many times daily”, compared to 26% of German-speaking students and 12% of non-German-speaking students. German-speaking students consume mass media from their home country the most frequently, 37.8% of them consuming it “many times daily”. This value is 24% in non-German-speaking students and 16% in Swiss students. The consumption of mass media from other countries is relatively low among all groups. 13.5% of non-German-speaking students consume mass media from other countries “many times daily” compared to 9.1% of Swiss students and 8.5% of German-speaking students who do so.

Apparently, the differences of the language of social media use among the three groups are evident and this differences also consist with the daily language use frequency. Non-German-speaking students use English the most frequently, and more often than their mother languages. 44.5% of them “always” use English and 30.8% of them “always” use their mother languages. Swiss students tend to use a mixture of languages, 39.4% of them “always” use High German, 30.5% of them “always” use Swiss German, and 29.4% of them “always” use English. High German is the dominant language among German-speaking students.

Although migration backgrounds do not lead to a certain integration type, the majority of them are tapped into homogeneous integration types. 90% of the Swiss students are in Assimilated type, and 99% of the Marginalized type are non-German-speaking students. However, different integration types have their regarding dominant migrant groups, but migrant groups do not necessarily belong to a single integration type. For example, 23% of German-speaking students are Assimilated, 32% of them are Integrated and 45% of them are Separated. The same applies to non-German-speaking students, 8% of them are Assimilated, 24% of them are Integrated, 13% of them are Separated and 55% of them are Marginalized.

The empirical study proved the effectiveness of integration factors. Effective Integration factors are language proficiency of both High German and Swiss German as well as the daily use frequency of both languages, friend circles, social interaction with friends from the host country, social interaction with international friends, the wish to stay in the host country, psychological distance towards host residents, host identity, home identity, cosmopolitan identities, and self-assessment of integration in the host country. Satisfaction factor does not appear as a strong index towards the integration extent regarding to the host society. Both satisfaction with the migration issue and satisfaction with life and work could not effectively explain or be explained by the integration types or their correlated media use behavior.

Cosmopolitan identity is a good factor for identifying an international oriented type. Together with the identity of “A member of international academic migrants”, cosmopolitan identity shows as a strong indicator for an international orientation. Cosmopolitan identity as one integration factor is positively correlated with mass media consumption from other countries (.239, $p < .001$) and social media consumption in English (.244, $p < .001$).

This study adds a third dimension of international society to the existing integration types in respect of dual societies between the home and host society. Assimilation, Integration and Cosmopolitan, Separation, and Marginalization and Cosmopolitan types are defined in this study. There is an international orientation among the two integration types.

Two integration types: Assimilation and Separation are defined with dual orientation of either host society or home society. The other two, Integration and Marginalization are discovered with triple orientation among host, home, and international societies. Different from the assumptions of existing conclusions, Marginalization and Cosmopolitan type defined in this study does not imply a ghetto/marginalized status away from both the host and home society. Although it is marginalized from the host society in the sense of integration in the host society, it is also integrated in the international society.

Social media use shows an international orientation. More English content is consumed on social media, no matter what the integration type. English is the most welcomed language among all participants, although English is not the mother language of most of them. More than 30% of participants “always” use English on social media. Non-German-speaking students show a stronger tendency of an international-oriented consumption, and they use English more often than their mother languages. Correspondingly, they also consume more mass media from other countries. All four integration types have a high consumption of English on social media.

There is a positive correlation between social media use in High German and Swiss German and the frequency of using Swiss media. There are negative correlations among social media use in Swiss German and the frequency of using mass media from home country and from other countries. Social media use shows a more international orientation than mass media use. All participants consume social media in a relatively high amount of English, however, the use of mass media from other countries are only obvious in two integration types. These differences might have an influence on the international-oriented integration type.

Concerning social networking, all four types show a relatively high value in keeping contact with international people and getting international news on average. This reflects the nature of new online media, and a more international and none-boundary oriented media type. A set hypothesis in this study is whether the change of media characters brings the changes in media consumption behaviors, but it requires further investigations.

Media use is correlated with integration. Correlation does not imply a causal relationship. Since this study treats media use and integration as an interactive process of migrants with the host, home, and international societies, a causal analysis is not necessary. The Integrated type in this study has a relatively high consumption of mass media from both the home and host countries. Their consumption of mass media from host countries is similar to the consumption of the Separated type. Similarly, both Separated and Integrated types frequently use High German and Swiss German on social media. A high consumption of media from the home country or in home language does not necessarily correlated to a negative integration situation in the host country.

12. Conclusion

In the following, I will summarize the contributions and shortcomings of this study with the purpose of providing an outlook into future studies in media use and integration of migrants, as well as in communication science.

12.1 The Contributions of This Study

This study investigated the media use behavior and integration situation of **young and educated college students** with migration backgrounds in German-speaking Switzerland. The findings show three features of this migrant group. They are **aim-driven** migrants, which can be explained from their interests in media content. They show a clear preference of media content with reference to their integration orientation in macro-level news topics, such as Politics, Economics, and Sports. But when news topics are related to more practical and personal information, such as Jobs and Education topics, all participants show more interest in the host society than in their home countries.

They are more **international oriented** migrants. This study found that there are two integration types with international orientation. It shows that young and educated migrants are no longer trapped into a dual choice between old and new society as existing studies imply. An international identity, or cosmopolitan identity, is getting stronger among them.

They **consume a lot of social media**. Different from mass media consumption, there are hardly difference among them concerning social media use. There are 75% of each group uses four different kinds of social media “many times daily” in total. Social networks are the most popular social media type among all participants, followed by picture or video sharing sites. Around half of them in three groups, use social networks.

As mentioned in Section 1.3, student migrants are a comparatively less studied migrant group in academia. The feature of this migrant group discovered in this study could be an important reference for future studies.

Multilingual and multicultural study is a challenge, and this study provides both the theoretical and the empirical experiences of research of this kind. This study gives a great effort to prevent **the confusion of languages**. The online survey was designed bilingually, in German and in English, aiming at reaching the understanding of all international migrants with their preferred language. Some definitions were designed with user-orientation in mind. For example, “mother language” and “home country” refers to the corresponding mother language and home country of each participant.

This study covers migrants with **all ethnic backgrounds**, but at the same time distinguishes the foreign students from their most particular features. The official language in German-speaking Switzerland is the same as its neighboring countries, Germany and Austria. Participants from these two neighboring countries consist of a large part of the investigated population. Thus the German-speaking students were excluded from the other foreign students.

Social media use is investigated thoroughly in this study and it was found that social media use shows a more international orientation than mass media use. More English content is consumed on social media, no matter what the integration type. More than 30% of participants always use English on social media. Non-German-speaking students showed a stronger tendency of international-oriented consumption. They use English more often than their mother languages.

This study suggests the **three-dimension Integration types, with an international orientation**. Based on the existing theories of integration strategies, this study defined two integration types with international orientation: “Integration and Cosmopolitan” and “Marginalization and Cosmopolitan” types. Thus it rejected the traditional marginalization type, which was understood as a ghetto community isolated from both home and host society.

12.2 The Critical Evaluations of This Study

This study measured integration at **a single point in time**. This methodological orientation leads to an artificially cropped “snapshot” of integration. However, the integration of individuals is dynamic and not simply a linear evolution. Immigrants’ modes of acculturation may vary over time as a function of ongoing experiences in their new culture, or new developments in the original culture. Due to its process nature, the examinations of acculturation call for micro genetic and longitudinal designs, preferably with multiple waves (Bornstein. 2013). This study could not show the “multiple waves” of integration process of migrants. Longitudinal panel study would help to illustrate the integration and media use waves of migrants.

More **qualitative** information could further explain the findings of this study. For instance, why non-German-speaking students tend to use more English in their daily life, to consume more media from other countries, or in English more than their mother language? Does it show a stronger tendency of international-orientation? Or is it because the media in the mother language is less accessible than the media in English? However, this cannot be explained by the data collected. A qualitative research method, such as a focus group, would help to collect more detailed and personalized explanations.

Across-ethnic-group comparison is the feature of this study. However, because there are plenty of countries with less than 1% of the total participants, they are therefore grouped into one big category: non-German-speaking students. This helped greatly for data analysis and ethnic group comparison based on the mother language, but it neglected the heterogeneity among these ethnic groups. As mentioned several times in this dissertation, modern migration is becoming a much more complex issue. It is causing the reconsideration of the existing

definitions for terms, such as ethnic background, nationality, country, home country, etc. Some definitions in this study leave the pace for self-understanding of participants, such as mother language, and media from home and other countries. However, whether a more precise definition should be developed is open for discussion.

12.3 Theoretical Suggestions for Future Studies

In this part, I will discuss the biggest challenges and concerns for theoretical settings for future studies. Technological revolution and globalization bring tremendous changes in all aspects of modern society. Therefore, it vacillates the classic norms and classifications in academia, such as the definitions of territory and culture, the classification of mass media, the understanding of Internet and social media use, and the definition of integration in migration studies.

Globalization brings challenges for the **classic definitions of** various terms concerning **territory and culture**. Terms, such as mother language, home country, ethnic background, and migrant are no longer a single answer for global migrants. The increased mobility of people makes the migration issue more complex. The profile between a high mobile person and a low mobile person is extremely diverse in the sense of migration background. The fact is that migration is a normal activity of humans, and if scholars do not limit migration backgrounds up until the second generation, many more people could find migration backgrounds in themselves. Thus the understanding of terms varies greatly from person to person, in both standardized surveys and in personalized interviews. For example, what is a home country? Is it the country of birth? Is the country which the person spent the most time in? Or is it the country where the parents were born in? Such different interpretations can be applied with other terms as well.

As technology/ICT is changing daily life, scholars should also note these changes when applying the traditional theoretical framework. The existing categories, definitions, and hypotheses require more updated studies. In communication science, **the classic definition of mass media** needs new considerations and measurements. In most media studies, mass media is divided into the following categories: newspaper, magazine, television, and radio. Again,

according to their production, they are classified into larger groups, for example, printed media. However, the technological revolution and the globalization of the media industry make this questionable.

The Internet technology put the classification of media production into question. Ever since mass media has gone online, the border of online media and print media is becoming vague. Before, the material or the vehicle of the media defined the media product, whether it was a printed newspaper, magazine, or television program, or wireless radio. Nowadays, all media products can be consumed on one screen. In practice, worries such as “will newspaper die/disappear” started when television was becoming prevalent. Of course, the material of the media is no longer everlasting. The key question for academics is “How to define mass media”. There are several criteria that can be considered: media contents, media languages, media editors, and media production places. The aim is not to find a permanent definition, but valid definitions.

The globalization of the media industry makes the classification of media even more complex. Multi-national or international media groups break down the territorial and linguistic border. More traditional media is transferred to multilingual and regional oriented international media. One example, *The Wall Street Journal*, changed from a traditional financial newspaper to an online media with partial printing circulation, then a multilingual media with ten different language versions aiming at their corresponding regions, and then a multimedia platform integrated with texts, pictures, figures, videos, and social channels, etc. Like the business developments of other industries in the commercial world, the media industry is also experiencing mergers, acquisitions, and globalization. For instance, *News Corporation* is a media group registered in the U.S. with its media companies and productions mainly in English-speaking areas: Australia, UK, and the U.S., while the divisions of companies are in other places in the world.

In such a situation, how do you classify mass media? The criteria mentioned above, media contents, media languages, media editors, and media production places, cannot be fixed with single answers. They are multi-national, multi-lingual, and multi-media. This is the challenge for media studies nowadays. However, it cannot be solved in single study and requires joint efforts from the global academic community. Before a new solution arrives, scholars should notice the changes of mass media classification when they apply the classic categories in their studies.

In recent years, **Internet use** received attention by several scholars when investigating media use behavior. However, Internet use was usually defined in a general way, which included all activities on the Internet. Since the Internet is connected with all-round aspects of living, it is no longer a simple method for getting more information or making cheaper telephone calls. Many Internet activities should be categorized under other disciplines, such as online-banking and online shopping as economic behaviors.

Internet use, in general, should be investigated in a more detailed way, that specifies the purpose and usage of the Internet. From the perspective of media use, three kinds of Internet usage can be related with media consumption. First, online media content consumption is no doubt the modern way of using mass media, no matter if through a computer, tablet, or mobile phone. Online media as the new form of mass media becomes the substitute of traditional mass media, especially among young generations. Second, social networking has a multi-function feature, which integrates social networking, user-generated contents, and media content sharing. How to define them and how to classify different types of social media, are the questions that need to be considered when analyzing social media. This will be discussed below. Third, communication software such as Skype, FaceTime and Applications such as WhatsApp, LINE, and WeChat are replacing traditional communication tools with its improved quality, free or almost free rate, and widespread Internet access. This type of Internet usage is close to interpersonal communication. But there is also a tendency that these three kinds of media are integrating into each other, which makes it again difficult to distinguish a single online media type strictly by its function.

Social media use, one of the most popular uses of the Internet received a wide range of scholarly interests as well. Certain aspects were investigated intensively, but when adapting social media use into the existing theoretical frameworks of media effects, it was difficult to analyze the usage of social media and how to adapt it into the frameworks, which were built up with mass media in mind? This was a main concern, when I designed the questions of the survey. Social media has an integrated feature of interpersonal communication and mass communication. This brings up the questions of measuring them as one type of media. The findings of this study shows that defining social media into different categories does not necessarily have significant differences among media users, although the consumption of different social media categories do vary. Furthermore, the results show that the language-orientation of social media use plays a more important role when defining media use

behaviors and integration orientation. More empirical studies are required to prove if this is also significant in theoretical frameworks.

This study added an **international orientation** to the existing integration types. Limited to the representative population of the survey, this tendency was discovered only among students with migration backgrounds in German-speaking Switzerland. But together with the background of international mobility and globalization, I assume that international orientation could also exist in other ethnic groups, other regions, and other migrant communities with different backgrounds. An international dimension should be taken into consideration beyond the host and home dimensions. To measure its existence, questions related with international identity, international information demands, and international friend circles can be introduced.

The above five points are the main theoretical suggestions for the future studies. They are not only suggestions, but also challenges for the field of communication science. In the following, I am going to discuss the concerns and suggestions for empirical studies in media use and integration.

12.4 Empirical Suggestions for Further studies

In this part, I will discuss the empirical suggestions and their operability. Facing the challenges brought by technological revolution and globalization, I suggest that international academic cooperation on a joint research project would help to solve the theoretical concerns mentioned above. In order to present the complexity of the changes on modern society, multi-ethnic study, panel study, interdisciplinary study, and a mixed approach of quantitative and qualitative methods are recommended.

From empirical dimensions, **scholarly cooperation in joint research projects** is highly recommended. As media use and migrants are going international, the research perspective is therefore required to go beyond the borders of countries, time, languages, disciplines, and research approaches. Facing the globalized migration issue and media consumption, future studies are expected to be more multi-dimensioned. Every scholar has his or her specialized

language, regional knowledge, and disciplinary competence. Intensive cooperation would help to investigate migration as a global issue and thus reveal its complexity.

Since ICT is changing the way of communication and daily life, a corresponding revolution in the way of doing research worldwide is naturally expected. Such efforts were suggested and pursued over years, but clearer joint theoretical frameworks and research questions could contribute to the changes in the nature of communication science.

In more detail, future studies can focus on several aspects: the differences among diverse ethnic groups in relation to their home and host societies, panel studies that track the changes of integration and media use behaviors, a mixed approach of qualitative and quantitative methods with joint research questions and frameworks, and different interpretations of integration under certain cultural and political backgrounds.

Studies on **multi-ethnic groups** should be encouraged. As mentioned in Chapter One, some ethnic groups are already thoroughly studied, such as Turkish groups in Germany, Chinese communities in the U.S., and Negro minorities in the U.S. These ethnic groups might be the dominant immigrant groups in certain region. Large minority groups usually catch more attention from the host society to solve social conflicts, culture diversities, and political debates, however, this should not be the reason to neglect the existence and feature other smaller minority groups. Research on minority and diverse ethnic groups would show the diversity of different ethnic groups and the similarities in the global migration issue.

In addition, most existing studies only discuss the relation between ethnic minorities and the host society, but neglect the penetration and interaction among ethnic groups. In fact, when confronting the host society, ethnic minorities are in a weaker position. This vulnerable situation could bring more contacts among ethnic minorities and thus result in intercultural influences. Whether this situation would influence media use behaviors and the integration situation, and to what extent, could be evaluated in comparison to the influence of the dominant host culture and incorporation efforts.

Multi-ethnic studies involve the knowledge of multicultural and multilingual competence. They also involve the personalization of standardized investigation questions, since the understanding of various terms and definitions can vary greatly under different linguistic and

cultural contexts. This study makes efforts to compare various ethnic groups while trying to avoid the misunderstanding of multi languages and multi cultures, but it still had to generalize ethnic groups with small population for the sake of comparison. Thus, I suggest that multilingual-oriented and international-based research groups could help to improve such studies.

Panel studies are very important for a better understanding of the evolution of integration and media use behaviors. The integration and media use of migrants is a dynamic temporal variation throughout the migration activity. Any research method, at one point in time, could only explain the relation between integration and media at that moment. In reality, there are very few applied panel studies in the field of media use and integration (Jeffres, 2000; Ying, 2005). The biggest challenges of panel studies are for researchers; it requires a huge time and personnel investment because the research method is usually repeated over years. Another challenge is that many changes can happen over the years, such as the loss of participants. Also, the data analysis is more complicated than a one-time study.

If a panel study would help to measure the horizontal temporal changes of integration and media use, an **inter-disciplinary approach** might be suggested to understand the vertical influence of various factors at one time. Both integration and media use are not isolated behaviors in a migrant's life. They coexist and interact with many other factors, such as religion, personality, political view, and economic status. Although this study takes media use as the central factor for evaluating integration, it does not imply that media use is the dominant role of the integration process. However, no factor alone can play the determine role. Therefore, an inter-disciplinary approach, which involves theology, politics, sociology, psychology, and economics could help to measure the interaction of different factors and their influence considering integration.

Similarly, a **mixed approach** of quantitative and qualitative methods is highly recommended. Such mixed approaches were applied in existing studies, however, they were not designed to support each other or to explain the joint question. Qualitative studies, which include methods such as field studies, observations, and focus groups would help to provide more detailed and personal information in order to explain the phenomenon discovered by

quantitative analysis. For example, quantitative analysis is useful in discovering the integration clusters and also for describing the features of each one. But in the real life of migrants, different factors are playing vital roles in the integration process. To better interpret integration types under certain cultural and political backgrounds, correlated with media use behavior, qualitative methods would contribute. Therefore, these two approaches, if designed properly for one research question, could be supplementary to each other.

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Online Questionnaire

Media Use and Integration: A Study on Students with Migration Backgrounds in Switzerland

Thank you for taking part in this survey! It should take you around 15 minutes to complete it. Your reply is very important.

This survey is conducted for my dissertation. It tries to explain the media use behaviors and integration wishes of students with migrant backgrounds at seven German-speaking universities in Switzerland.

As a “thank-you”, I offer all participants who complete the survey the chance to win 2×300 CHF gift cards.

All information collected in this survey will be kept anonymous and confidential. The survey results will be published as dissertation and academic papers.

Mediennutzung und Integration: Eine Studie unter Studierenden mit Migrationshintergrund in der Schweiz

Vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme an der Umfrage! Das Ausfüllen des Fragebogens wird nicht mehr als zirka 15 Minuten in Anspruch nehmen. Ihre Teilnahme ist sehr wichtig. Diese Umfrage wird für meine Dissertation durchgeführt. Mit diesem Projekt möchte ich das Mediennutzungsverhalten und den Integrationswunsch von Studierenden mit Migrationshintergrund an den sieben deutschsprachigen Universitäten in der Schweiz untersuchen.

Als Dankeschön für Ihre Teilnahme, verlose ich unter allen Teilnehmern, die den Fragebogen komplett ausgefüllt haben, 2 Geschenkgutscheine im Wert von 300CHF. Alle mit dem Fragebogen erhobenen Daten werden mit äusserster Sorgfalt behandelt und natürlich anonym gehalten. Die Ergebnisse werden in Form einer Doktorarbeit und eines akademischen Arbeitspapiers bereitgestellt.

Falls Sie noch weitere Fragen haben, kontaktieren Sie mich bitte unter/If you have any further questions please feel free to contact:

Chun Chen, Ph.D. candidate, E-mail: chun.chen@ipmz.uzh.ch
IPMZ - Institut für Publizistikwissenschaft und Medienforschung der Universität Zürich

In welcher Sprache möchten Sie den Fragebogen ausfüllen?
In which language do you want to fill out this survey?

After choosing the language, please click "Weiter" to continue.



English



Deutsch

1. MIGRATION BACKGROUND

First, there are some questions about your migration background.

1. What country were you born in?

a. Country list _____

2. What is/are your nationality/ies right now?

- a. First nationality
- b. Second nationality (optional)

3. Have you moved to Switzerland?

- a. No, I am born in Switzerland.
- b. Yes, I moved to Switzerland alone.
- c. Yes, I moved to Switzerland with my parent(s).
Yes, I moved to Switzerland with my spouse.
- d. Yes, I moved to Switzerland with my child (ren).
- e. I do not want to answer this question.

4. How many years have you lived in Switzerland

Please give the rounding number, eg: 1.4 years is rounded to 1 year, 1.5 years is rounded to 2 years.

5. Do you consider Switzerland as your home country?

If not, please give the name of your home country in the blank.

- a. Yes.
- b. No. _____

6. What country was your mother born in?

7. What is her nationality/ies right now?

- a. First nationality
- b. Second nationality (optional)

8. What country was your father born in?

9. What is his nationality/ies right now?

- c. First nationality
- d. Second nationality (optional)

10. What country was your spouse born in?

11. What is his/her nationality/ies right now?

e. First nationality

f. Second nationality (optional)

2. INTEGRATION INDICATOR - LANGUAGE

12. What is your mother language? (up to 2 answers)

_____,

_____,

13. Can you please rate your proficiency in High German?

	No knowledge at all	Poor	Fair	good	Very good
a. Listening					
b. Speaking					
c. Reading					
d. Writing					

14. Can you please rate your proficiency in Swiss German?

	No knowledge at all	Poor	Fair	good	Very good
a. Listening					
b. Speaking					

15. How often do you use the following languages in your daily life?

Use includes reading, writing, listening and speaking.

Mother language: please leave it blank if your mother language has been mentioned above)

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
a. High German					
b. Swiss German					
c. English					
d. Mother language					

3. MEDIA USE

Now I would like to know something about how you use mass media.

Please kindly notice: Mass media include newspaper, magazine, news website, TV and radio in their original, online and mobile app versions.

***Ethnic Media** refer to the media that are produced in Switzerland/Europe but target at the readers with migration background(s) (eg: Europe Chinese News, Corriere degli Italiani ZH).

16. How often do you use the following types of media in average?

	Almost never/ Never	Once or several times yearly	Once or several times monthly	Once or several times weekly	Once daily	Many times daily
Swiss media						
Media from your home country						
Media from other countries						
Ethnic Media*						

17. Below I have listed four types of media. Please give the name of the media in each type, which you use the most frequently.

Please give the names of specific media such as BBC and CNN but not the media type.

For each type, you may name maximal 3 media.

Please write the media in the order that you use more frequently.

	Most frequent	Second most frequent	Third most frequent
Swiss media			
Media from your home country			
Media from other countries			
Ethnic Media*			

18. Why do you use the following media (multiple choice)?

	Swiss media	Media from your home country	Media from other countries	Ethnic Media	No idea/ I have never used.

a. For international news					
b. For news about my home country					
c. For news about Switzerland					
d. To integrate into mainstream Swiss society					
e. For particular information, eg: job, activity, concert, sales, housing					
f. To learn German					
g. To relax and kill time					
h. To find some topics to talk about with friends					
i. Just as a habit					

19. In which way do Swiss media help you as a foreigner to know about the following aspects about Switzerland?

	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
a. Swiss culture					
b. Swiss politics					
c. Swiss Economics					
d. Job search in Switzerland					
e. Education chances in Switzerland					
f. Swiss Social welfare system					
g. Swiss local news					
h. Living Information in Switzerland					
i. Attitudes/policies towards migrants in Switzerland					

j. Topics that Swiss are interested					
k. How my home country is described in Switzerland					

20. Please state whether you are MORE interested in the following topics about Switzerland or about your home country.

E.g.: Are you more interested in the political election in your home country or in Switzerland?

Click the button that indicates your preference.

	More about Switzerland	More about my home country	About the same	No interest at all
a. Politics				
b. Sports				
c. Science and Technology				
d. Art and culture				
e. Education				
f. Economics				
g. Job				
h. Weather and catastrophes				
i. Crime				
j. Entertainment/celebrity news				

21. How often do you use the following tools to keep in contact with people from your home country?

	Alomst never/Never	Once or several times yearly	Once or several times monthly	Once or several times weekly	Daily
a. Telephone/SMS					
b. E-mail					
c. Video chat					
d. Social media					
e. Letters					
f. We visit each other.					

22. How often do you use the following tools to keep contact with people in Switzerland?

	Alomst never/Never	Once or several times yearly	Once or several times monthly	Once or several times weekly	Daily
a. Telephone/SMS					
b. E-mail					
c. Video chat					
d. Social media					

e. Letters					
f. We meet and hang out					

Now I would like to know something about how you use social media.

Please kindly notice:

In this survey, social media is divided into four categories.

1. Social networks such as Facebook, Google+ and LinkedIn.
2. Blogs, Microblogs such as WordPress, Twitter, Tumblr and Weibo.
3. Picture or Video sharing sites such as Youtube, Flickr and Picasa.
4. Social Bookmarks such as Delicious, digg and Pinboard.

23. How often do you use the following types of social media in average?

	Almost never/N ever	Once or several times yearly	Once or several times monthl y	Once or several times weekly	Once daily	Many times daily
Social networks						
Blogs, Microblogs						
Picture or Video sharing sites						
Social bookmarking						

24. How often do you consume social media in the following languages in average?

Consumption includes all your activities on social media, like posting about yourself, commenting on others, reading articles and watching videos

Mother language: please leave it blank if your mother language has been mentioned above

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
a. High German					
b. Swiss German					
c. English					
d. Mother language					

25. Can you name the social media, which you use the most frequently?

Please write maximal three social media. leave it blank if you use less than three.

Please write the social media in the order that you use more frequently.

	Most frequent	Second most frequent	Third most frequent
Social networks			
Blogs, Microblogs			
Picture or Video sharing sites			
Social bookmarking			

26. Can you describe the friends you have on these social networks? For each type of social media, can you estimate how many friends do you have?

Please enter the number as digital number.

If you do not have friends on particular social media or you do not use particular social media, please type 0.

	Local Swiss friends	Friends living in Switzerland, who came from my home country	Friends living in my home country	International friends (other friends except from CH and your home country)
Social networks				
Blogs, Microblogs				
Picture or Video sharing sites				
Social bookmarking				

27. How important are these reasons for you to use social media?

	Not at all important	Slightly important	Fairly important	Quite important	Very Important	No idea
To keep in contact with people of my migrant origin in Switzerland						
To keep in contact with people in my home country						
To keep in contact with local Swiss people						

To keep in contact with international people						
To get news about Switzerland						
To get news about my home country						
To get international news						
To post about myself						
To learn foreign language						
To relax and kill the time						
I do it as part of my job.						
As a habit						
Other reasons						

4. INTEGRATION

Now I would like to know some of your opinions to the following questions.

Please note: Some questions are subjective. Your first reaction to each question should be your answer.

28. How many friends approximately of each category do you have now in real life?

Please fill in the approximate number of friends that you have.

Local Swiss friends	
Friends living in Switzerland, who came from my home country	
Friends living in my home country	
Friends from other countries	

29. How often do you meet Swiss, international friends or friends from/in your home country, who do not belong to your family, in your free time?

	Never	Rarely	Once or several times yearly	Once or several times monthly	Once or several times weekly	Daily or almost daily
Local Swiss friends						
Friends living in Switzerland, who came from my home country						
Friends living in my home country						
Friends from other countries						

30. What do you feel about the following statements?

	Very bad	Bad	Fair	Good	Very good
If the people from your home country have many Swiss friends					
If the people from your home country will marry a Swiss					
If I have many Swiss friends					
If I will marry/marry a Swiss					

31. How much do you agree with the following descriptions after your graduation in Switzerland?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Partly agree	Agree	Strongly agree	No idea
I will leave Switzerland right after I finish my study.						
I will leave Switzerland some day in the future.						
I would like to always stay in Switzerland.						
I would like to apply for the Swiss citizenship.						

32. Can you rate your satisfaction about the following items?

	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Partly satisfied	Fairly satisfied	Very satisfied	No idea
Your Institute and university in Switzerland						
Your current living situation in Switzerland						
The Swiss media						
The migrant policy in Switzerland						
The general attitude of Swiss to migrants						
The Swiss society in general (culture, value, political system, welfare, public facilities, etc.)						

33. How much do you feel that you belong to the following groups?

"I feel as"

In the globalized world, people can identify themselves with very diverse groups.

	Very little	A little	Fairly	Quite much	Very much	No idea
A member of a Swiss city or region (eg: Basler, Züricher, Berner, etc.)						
Swiss						
A member of the city or region of my home country (eg: New Yorker, etc.)						
A member of my home country (eg: German, American, etc.)						
A member of a particular continent (eg: European, Asian, etc.)						
A member of both Switzerland and my home country						

Cosmopolitan						
A member of the international community of my home country(eg: Chinese overseas, etc.)						
A member of international academic migrants						

34. What does “integrate into Switzerland” mean to you?

Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	No Idea
To have a circle of Swiss friends.						
Can speak Swiss German.						
To use Swiss media						
To be active in some local group or organization in Switzerland (eg: sports club, music band)						
To have the same chance of getting a job as an average Swiss person.						
To accept Swiss traditions and culture						
To feel comfortable living in Switzerland						
To be accepted (by others) as a local person						
To participate in Swiss politics or vote						
To acquire the Swiss citizenship						

- 35. Besides the definitions above, do you have your own definition of "integrate into the Swiss society" (optional)?**

--

- 36. How well are you integrated into mainstream Swiss society?**

_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

5. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

You have nearly completed the survey. Please answer some questions about yourself.

- 37. How old are you?**

Please enter your age as two-digit number

- 38. Your gender**

- a. Male
- b. Female

- 39. Do you have other family members living in Switzerland (multiple choice)?**

- a. No, I do not have.
- b. Yes, my spouse/partner.
- c. Yes, my child(ren).
- d. Yes, my mum.
- e. Yes, my father.
- f. Yes, my siblings.
- g. Yes, my grandmother.
- h. Yes, my grandfather.
- i. Yes, my uncle/auntie.
- j. Yes, other persons. Please specify

- 40. Please choose the university which you are enrolled at**

- a. ETH
- b. University of St.Gallen
- c. University of Basel
- d. University of Zurich
- e. University of Lucerne
- f. University of Bern
- g. University of Fribourg

41. Are you in an Erasmus or exchange program at Swiss university?

- a. Yes.
- b. No.

42. What degree are you working towards now?

- a. BA
- b. MA
- c. Licentiate
- d. Ph.D.

43. What semester are you in your current study program?

Please enter the number of the semesters you have spent on the program

44. What is your main major?

45. In which of the following languages do you study the subject of your main major?

- a. English
- b. German
- c. French
- d. Italian
- e. Other language

46. What is your minor major? (optional)

47. In which of the following languages do you study the subject of your minor major? (optional)

- a. English
- b. German
- c. French
- d. Italian
- e. Other language

Congratulations and many thanks for completing the survey of
**Media Use and Integration: A Study on Students with Migration Background in
Switzerland**

Around June to September 2013, **group interview** which lasts 30 to 40 minutes will be conducted as further research step of this project. Joining my interviews, you will be able to tell your story, share from other stories, know about the findings of this survey and be awarded small presents for your participation. The details about interview schedule will be sent afterwards to your email address. The place of interview can be chosen at your favorable city or campus in Switzerland.

If you are interested, please leave your email address below.

As a thank you, I will choose two lucky participants to win **gifts cards of 300CHF** at any shop as wish. The names will be announced after the survey around end June 2013. If you are willing to participate, please leave your email address below.

Your information will be saved. Please click "Close window" to leave this survey.

Acknowledgements

This study is financed by Forschungskredit from University of Zurich. I greatly thank the generosity and support from University of Zurich.

Many thanks to the official survey distribution and support of six universities in German-speaking Switzerland: University of Basel, University of Bern, University of Lucerne, University of St.Gallen, University of Zurich and ETH and the WiSo-faculty at University of Freiburg. The voluntary participation of students is greatly appreciated.

Last but not least, I would like to thank the ones who helped me in the past three years for any professional suggestions, personal assistance, and private consulting. Without you, I will not be able to accomplish this dissertation.